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ABSTRACT

"Cross Currents" is subtitled "an International Journal of Language Teaching and Cross-Cultural Communication." This special theme issue is devoted to the topic of "content-based language teaching" and contains nine the ELT Needs of Japanese University Students"; "Exploring Community in a Content-Based Foreign Language Classroom"; "Risk-Taking for the Timid Teacher;" "The Big Picture Process Activity"; "No Excuse for Boring Classes"; "Cassette Tapes, Vocabulary and Homework"; "Content-Based English Language Teaching: A Focus on Teacher Training"; "Content-Based Language Testing"; "Language and Content Learning K through 12"; "Sheltered Subject Matter Teaching"; "The Language of Subject-Matter Textbooks: Barriers to Learning"; "Developing Video Materials for Content Courses"; "The Content-Based Curriculum at ITM/MUCIA"; "4 Years Later--Are We Content with Content?"; and "Curriculum Design for Japanese Students in a Foreign Cultural Environment." (MSE)

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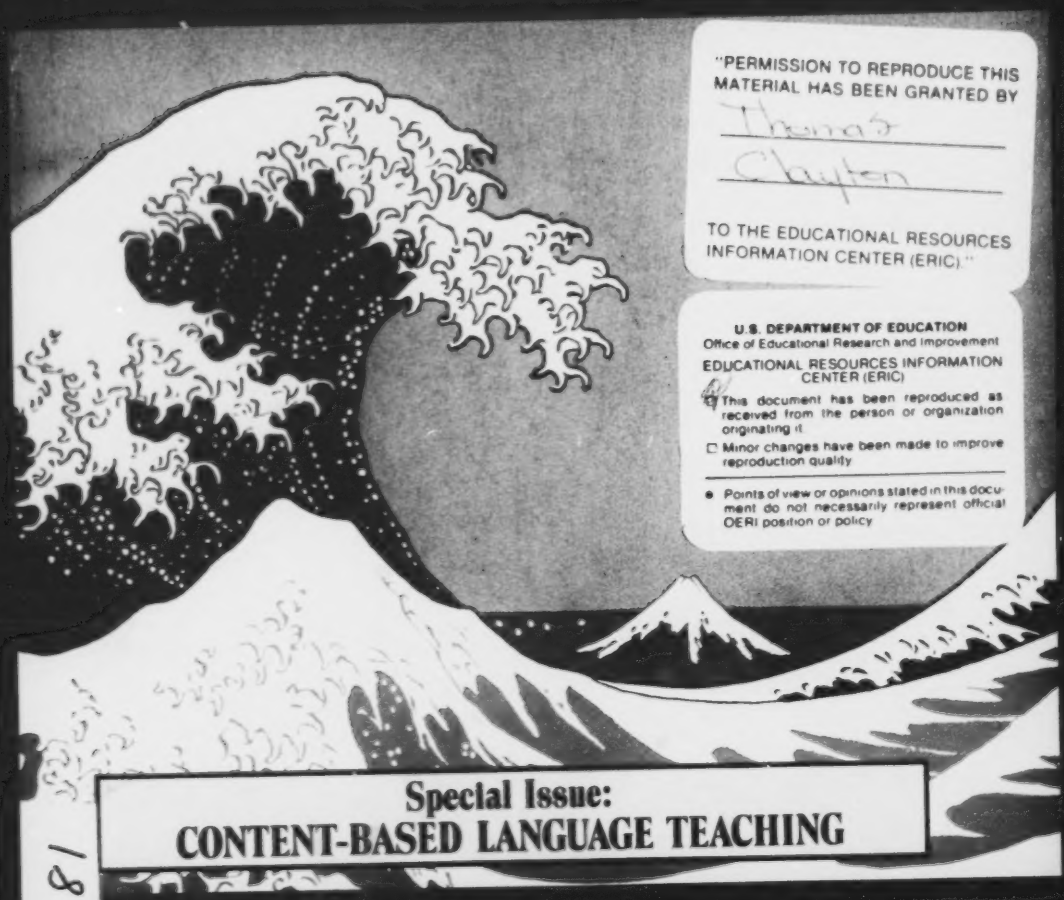

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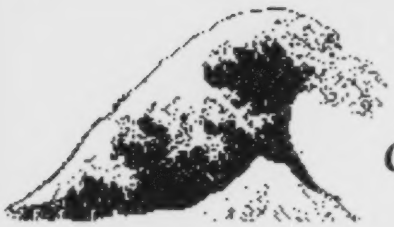

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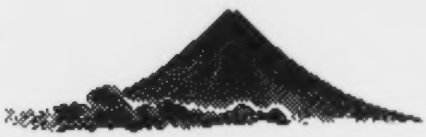

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

In *Cross Currents'* lead article, "PANSI: A Survey of the ELT Needs of Japanese University Students," page 127, Peter Voller and Steven Widdows examine the extent to which the English language education received by most Japanese university students corresponds to the students' expectations and to their motivations for studying English in the first place.

In "Exploring Community in a Content-Based Foreign Language Classroom," page 143, author Steven Sternfeld explains how and why an intensive foreign language class will sometimes develop into an actual community. He explains the discrete steps students are likely to go through, and provides clear guidance on how the teacher can help facilitate this process.

In our third article, "Risk-taking for the Timid Teacher," page 153, author Ruth Wajnryb provides guidance for teachers who would like to try out new communicative activities in their classrooms but lack the confidence to do so.

The Bright Ideas in this issue of *Cross Currents* were contributed by Laurie Tellis, Frank Daulton, and John Mancuso and George Stenson. Tellis' "The Big Picture Process Activity," beginning on page 159, details an activity that uses pictures of everyday processes to get students to use passive voice and sequence language. Frank Daulton's "No Excuse for Boring Classes" on page 161 shows how the disruption of a late student can be turned into a creative language activity. In "Cassette Tapes, Vocabulary & Homework," page 163, John Mancuso and George Stenson apply superlearning methodology to making homework tapes for their students.

Our special forum on "Content-Based Language Teaching" begins on page 167 with Deborah Short's article on teacher training. She provides a model framework for conducting inservice teacher training workshops on content-based language teaching.

In "Content-Based Language Testing," page 174, J.D. Brown offers clear guidance for designing language tests for content courses.

Margaret Early explains how Mohan's Knowledge Framework is applied to teaching content. Her article, "Language and Content Learning K through 12," appears on page 179.

In "Sheltered Subject Matter Teaching," page 183, Stephen Krashen gives an overview of current research into teaching content and gives practical advice for further application.

In his facinating article, "The Language of Subject-Matter Textbooks: Barriers to Learning," page 189, Harry Krasnick points out the problems poorly written textbooks can present for the ESL learner.

In "Developing Video Materials for Content Courses," page 196, Carol Piñeiro examines the uses of video for teaching content.

In their joint article, "The Content-Based Curriculum at ITM/MUCIA," page 200, Fredrickson, Hagedorn and Reed detail their experiences in developing a content-based curriculum for students who will soon enter an American university.

Along similar lines, Max Mayer and Laura Mayer examine the content classes at Temple University Japan in their article "4 Years Later—Are We Content With Content?" page 206.

In the final article, "Curriculum Design for Japanese Students in a Foreign Cultural Environment" page 209, Lorraine Fairhall gives a further example of the applications of Mohan's Knowledge Framework.

This issue of *Cross Currents* contains book reviews by Robert O'Neill, Scott Jarrett, Jim Kahny, and Elizabeth King. The review section begins on page 223.

We hope you enjoy this special focus issue of *Cross Currents*. We will examine "Technology in English Language Teaching" in our next publication, Volume 19, Number 1, Summer 1992. The forum for Volume 19, Number 2, due out in December 1992, will be on "Global Issues in the Classroom." Those interested in contributing to the forums should contact the editor.

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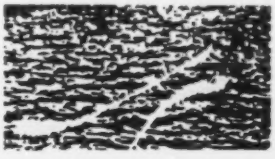

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LETTERS

Professionalism in International English Language Teaching: More Comments.

In 1987, Gerry Pritchard, opening a discussion on the standard of teachers in the British state sector, posed the question "How many teachers today, if they are totally honest, could sit in the staff room and point the finger at a colleague, who they know is a disgrace to the profession?" (1987) Because he published in the Times Educational Supplement, which is bought mainly on the strength of its advertisements for vacant teaching posts, Pritchard's accusation hit home to a large audience, and a good deal of controversy ensued, although it was remarkable that no one was able to refute the original suggestion.

Unfortunately, I feel that the debate initiated by Clayton (1989 & 1990) is unlikely to have the same effect on the EFL profession. Clayton initiated the debate in an academic journal published in Japan. His words will not reach a wide audience, and while those who do read them will probably agree with his analysis, I would suggest that the majority of EFL practitioners are not particularly interested in developing their professional expertise, that there is no consensus on what qualifications attest to professional competence, and that many employers are quite prepared to sacrifice quality if the alternative is a financial saving.

We have no accurate figures on the number of people actually teaching EFL, but in 1985 Trim estimated that the figure for Europe alone was perhaps over 250,000 (Trim, 1985). Since then, the reunification of Germany and political change in Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary would suggest that the figure should be revised upwards, but in 1990 membership of the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL) stood at an all time high of 2200—less than one per cent of that total. This figure does not include the memberships of the affiliated organisations which come under the IATEFL umbrella, but at the same time it must be remembered that a large proportion of the individual members of IATEFL are, in fact, senior academics working in the tertiary sector. They may be working in the fields of applied linguistics, theoretical linguistics or teacher training, but they are not "teachers" in the sense that the layman would understand that term.

This point has already been made by Bass (1989) who launched an attack on the editorial policy of *English Teaching Forum*, on the grounds that the magazine did not publish "simple, lucid, non-professional articles on how to teach English as a second language to enable the teacher, especially those out in the village, to receive concrete help in the classroom" (p. 54).

This was a fair point, and it could be argued that there is a case for publishing more practical articles and fewer theoretical papers. On the other hand, his earlier allegation that *English Teaching Forum* was written "for a professional elite, an exclusive fraternity, of well-educated panjandrums" was, to put it mildly, intemperate. In the first place, only 39 of the 69 contributors to the first three issues of *English Teaching Forum* in 1989 were working in the University sector. (This figure contrasts well with the *ELT Journal*, where in 1939 only six out of 34 contributors were *not* in tertiary education.) Moreover, *English Teaching Forum* is a magazine which encourages contributions and correspondence, and is circulated free of charge.

This, in turn, explains both the low membership figure for IATEFL and the preponderance of academics among the contributors to educational journals. The bulk of those engaged in teaching EFL are so uninvolved in their profession that they will neither join professional organisations nor contribute to publications. Those who do join, and will publish, automatically become the "elite"

simply by virtue of their interest in their work. The *Cross Currents* debate, therefore, will stimulate only the "elite" of the profession, i.e., those who are actually prepared to pay for a magazine and read it.

Despite the growing numbers of post-graduate certificates and Masters courses which are available for EFL teachers, some employers persist in offering positions to teachers whose qualifications are at the very lowest level of adequacy. Speaking to *The Guardian* in 1990, Roger Bowers, controller of the British Council Language and Literature Division, suggested that if you want to get a position teaching EFL then you should "authenticate yourself by taking a four week course leading to a certificate—either awarded by the RSA, or Trinity College of Music, London"(as quoted in Wade, 1991).

The suggestion that this is sufficient is remarkable from a man who attended the British Council conference at which Edelhoff (1985) declared "the term 'teacher preparation' to me seems quite inappropriate since teacher education should be a lifelong process of self-determined, autonomous adult learning rather than a temporary act of instrumental training"(p. 126-142). Bowers, however, is not alone, for in 1989, Chris Kennedy, speaking for the Centre for British Teachers, admitted "In a recent project involving primary school teachers, we recruited already trained teachers who had jobs in the U.K. but who did not have EFL training. Our response to this situation has been in the first instance to contract out to an organisation which runs the RSA Prep. Cert."(As quoted by Whitney, 1989, p. 128)

Admittedly, in this instance, the teachers were already qualified primary school teachers with experience, but I find it remarkable that both the British Council and the CBT should be prepared to suggest that a one month course in teaching is in any way sufficient. In my present establishment, the Force Ordnance Service of the Royal Army of Oman allocates 10 weeks to teaching the most basic level of military storekeeping, which is primarily a straightforward matter of issues and receipts, and keeping the records up-to-date. The practice of storekeeping bears no comparison with the complex pre-planning, instant decision-making, monitoring and organisation that are necessary to run a class successfully, and I would suggest that a month's course is barely sufficient to pick up a few opening gambits and a nodding acquaintance with the use of visual aids. Such basic tricks of the trade may be sufficient for part-time work, or short summer courses, but over a longer period they will be exposed for the superficial polish which they are.

There is, however, a reverse side to this coin, and that is the phenomenon of certification—the demand for high qualifications regardless of whether they are appropriate for the job in hand. Kennedy refers to this attitude when he claims that "What seems to be happening at the moment is that the M.A. is becoming a basic qualification" and the trend in this direction raises two, equally worrying, concerns.

In the first place, the demand for high academic qualifications means that older, more experienced teachers; those who took the Dip. RSA in the early 1980s, for example, may be frozen out of certain areas of employment by virtue of the fact that their present qualifications are, in effect, unfashionable. Simultaneously, preference will be given to candidates who have a proven ability to conduct academic research, but who may have only limited pedagogic skills.

Secondly, and more worrying still, is the fact that when certification is carried to its ultimate extent, one reaches the situation which applied in some universities in the Middle East in the late 1970s, where the demand for doctorates—no matter the provenance or discipline—placed totally unsuitable faculty in certain departments.

There is, however, another financial aspect to be considered here. Certification may be a phenomenon which is found in centres of Higher Education, funded by public money, but within the private sector a harder, cash nexus is applied. It is this cash nexus which allows Jane Wright (1991), speaking on behalf of the London based recruitment agency English Worldwide, to state "EFL teachers must always expect to 'pay' a little for the privilege of living and working in particular countries"(p. 32).

This is an outrageous statement which defies

logical processes of thought. There is no reason why a member of any profession should be expected to pay for the privilege of working, and it is open to question whether working for a living is a privilege at all. If this statement were applied to geophysicists, hydrologists or physicians, it would be received with howls of derisive laughter, and Ms. Wright would be informed that those who wish to donate their services to particular countries can apply to the Peace Corps, Voluntary Service Overseas or *Medecins sans Frontieres*.

Unfortunately, however, the reality is not so simple, and Ms. Wright has a point in her favour. EFL teachers must expect to "pay" for the very reason that there are always people, less qualified, to take the jobs if they do not. Behind the professionals is the legion of Clayton's "unreal" teachers who are prepared to travel around and work for very little reward.

More insidious still, organisations which ought to know better encourage this trend. Here in Oman, the British Council is quite content to organise classes which are taught by a succession of part-time teachers, because it is cheaper to pay teachers an hourly rate than engage full-time staff who require return air fares, accommodation and vacation pay. As McCabe (1984) has pointed out in another context, the British Council wields considerable powers of patronage, particularly in Third World countries and the example set by the British Council is likely to encourage other employers to adopt similar approaches.

In Britain itself, this approach has already been shown to be self-defeating, and private language schools operating under the ARELS-FELCO umbrella have discovered that return business is dependent on full-time, qualified staff who give the students the professional tuition for which they have travelled to the UK. Outside Britain, however, the profession remains disparate, with teachers looking for the best salaries and working conditions available, and often finding that their expectations are not met. There are signs that this may be changing. The Bell Schools in Bangkok and Prague are now advertising for full-time staff at what are, for Thailand and Czechoslovakia, very reasonable salaries, but such changes remain tied to local initiatives and it is hard to see how teachers alone can improve the situation. The first step, however, would be to expand membership of professional organisations and reach consensus within the profession on what constitutes an acceptable level of qualification. The first targets here, moreover, would have to be Britain, Japan and the USA.

The Language Institute of Japan, IATEFL in Britain and TESOL in the USA are all uniquely placed to organise campaigns for higher standards and growth in membership, but so long as the situation applies where no teaching credentials are required to work on ESL programmes in more than half the States in the USA, the profession will remain a home-away-from-home for the "unreal" teacher, and little progress will be made.

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PANSI: A Survey of the ELT Needs of Japanese University Students

Steven Widdows and Peter Voller

BACKGROUND TO THE SURVEY

English is one of the most widely studied subjects in Japan. It is, de facto, a compulsory subject for students during their six years of secondary school, and for all first and second year university students. Foreign languages are among the most popular majors at university, and English is generally the largest of these departments. Yet it is far from clear why so many students choose to study English, what they hope to achieve by doing so, or how effective they find the teaching and evaluation procedures they encounter. It is extremely uncommon for students to be consulted directly about such matters; teachers and school authorities take it for granted that the present content, methods and structure are naturally the most suitable. At both the secondary and tertiary levels traditional methods and materials, in particular grammar-translation, dominate, and classroom dynamics are usually limited to the familiar teacher-dominated/fact-memorisation arrangement. By investigating students' motives, needs and attitudes towards their study of English, this survey hopes to produce evidence that will either corroborate or challenge the assumptions of teachers and college authorities.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that such assumptions are widespread, owing "more to institutional inertia and the weight of tradition than to any reality" (p. 53). They stress the importance of making teachers and administrators aware of learner needs. Dickinson (1987) summarises the various instruments that can be used for assessing needs. Most involve some kind of questionnaire or survey, and most are designed for very specific situations. For example, some are meant for individual learners (see Nunan, 1988, pp. 75-77) or for specific countries, institutions or courses (see Savignon, 1983, pp. 126-133 for examples). Some are more generalised and deal with attitudes (e.g., Gardner and Lambert, 1972) or learning-style preferences (e.g., Reid, 1987; Willing, 1988). Yalden (1987, p. 131) provides a list of the standard works on formal approaches to needs surveys.

With regard to Japan, descriptions of needs assessment surveys and reports of their results are very scant. Nakachi (1983) gives little more than anecdotal evidence about the attitudes and language learning success of a single Japanese subject. Voller (1987) reports the results of a rudimentary needs and interests survey to argue for the introduction of communicative syllabuses in Japanese universities. Millar (1988) investigated Japanese attitudes towards English language and culture, and Liggett (1988) compared Japanese and Egyptian students' classroom expectations, but in neither case were their questionnaires specifically directed towards needs analysis. Similarly, the survey by Benson (1991) is of scant relevance. In addition, ambiguities in his rubrics, in individual items, and in the purpose of the main sections limit the value of his findings.

A prototype of the PANSI (Profile of Attitudes, Needs and Student Interests) questionnaire, from which the present instrument evolved, appeared in Widdows (1987), an article discussing the need for a comprehensive

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assessment of students' needs and attitudes as a basis for drawing up a curriculum.

Creating the PANSI Questionnaire

The present survey focuses on five related aspects of students' motives and needs. Section 1 of the questionnaire asks about reasons for embarking on a full-time university degree course. The questions in this section were devised by first eliciting reasons from a large number of students at four different universities and then selecting the most common ones. Subjects responded by indicating to what degree each reason applied to their case on a five-point Likert scale.

Section 2 looks at which English language skills students would like to become proficient in by the time they graduate. The choices of skills given were devised by the writers, expanding on the original list given in Widdows (1987, p. 148). As in Section 1, subjects responded on a five-point scale ranging from *very important* to *not important at all*.

Section 3 has separate sections for English majors and non-majors. English majors were asked to indicate their reasons for choosing to study English by checking any number of the sixteen possible reasons given. Non-majors were first asked whether they would choose to study English if it were not compulsory; those who responded affirmatively marked their reasons in the same way as the majors. The options in this section were devised after eliciting reasons from students prior to making the prototype questionnaire in 1987.

Section 4 focuses on learning-style preferences by assessing attitudes towards a variety of evaluation and teaching procedures. It is in two parts: section 4.1 asks for reactions to different forms of evaluation, while section 4.2 concerns the perceived effectiveness of various classroom procedures. Subject response is on a five-point scale from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The items in section 4.1 were devised by the writers, while section 4.2 incorporates ideas from Reid (1987, p. 111).

Section 5, based on Voller (1987, pp. 62-63), is a list of topics of common interest to help teachers choose the content of general English courses at specific universities. The results of Section 5 are, therefore, not germane to the present discussion and are not reported.

The questionnaire was originally drafted in English, then translated into Japanese.[1] It is interesting to note that certain concepts quite fundamental to current EFL methodology proved impossible to render into straightforward Japanese. The original version of section 4.2H, for instance, asked about the effectiveness of task-based learning, but nowhere could an equivalent for 'task' be found, neither from specialist English-Japanese dictionaries of linguistics and language teaching, nor from native Japanese EFL teachers who were familiar with the English term. A 'task' thus became, perforce, 'solving a problem through discussion.' Another difficulty arose in section 4.2J which reads "when the teacher takes an interest in me as a person," for it was impossible to eradicate entirely the connotation of sexual interest in the Japanese version.

After translation, the questionnaire was piloted on ten representative students (who were not used as subjects for the survey) to ensure that the rubric was easy to understand and that there was neither ambiguity nor opaqueness in the contents.

Administering the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed to 90 students at four different universities. 86 were satisfactorily returned. The subjects, chosen at random from their classes, consisted of the following groups: 30 third and fourth year students from Tokoha Gakuen University, Shizuoka (TGU)—16 women and 14 men, all English majors; 10 first year students at TGU—5 women and 5 men, all English majors; 10 second year students at TGU—5 women and 5 men, all non-English majors; 10 first year students at Meiji Gakuin University, Tokyo (MGU)—5 men and 5 women, all English majors; 9 second year students at MGU—4 women and 5 men, all English majors; 8 first year students at Waseda University, Tokyo—3 men and 5 women, all non-English majors; 9

first and second year students at Keio University, Tokyo—4 women and 5 men, all non-English majors and all returnees to Japan after varying periods of having lived and studied abroad. All students, with the exception of those from Keio, had attended ordinary primary and secondary schools in Japan. The third and fourth year students from TGU had also received teaching of a different kind in the previous two years: They have had student-centred, activity- and task-based language lessons from a native speaker (one of the writers). This is of special interest with regard to the results of Section 4.

The criteria for choosing these subject groups were firstly to have a wide range of students spread over four separate universities, and secondly to be able to combine groups to get larger samples which contrast in various aspects. Hence we have the following: 30 third and fourth year students, who have also received non-traditional lessons, and 28 first year students (excluding the Keio returnees); 44 women and 42 men; 59 English majors and 27 non-English majors.

The questionnaire was distributed in the last week of classes in December 1988 and returned during January 1989. After collection of all 86 completed questionnaires, the data was sorted by tallying the individual responses for each item to produce means for each intact group. These means were then combined into larger groups according to academic year, sex, and subject major, these being the six groups listed above. The means for each group were then ranked. Tables 1 to 6 list these means and rankings for each section of the questionnaire. Responses to Sections 1, 2, 4.1 and 4.2 are expressed as a figure between 1 and 5, while responses to Section 3 are expressed as a percentage (the proportion of respondents in each group who checked a given item).

Findings

Section 1: Objectives in undertaking a full-time university degree course

Responses were highly consistent from all groups, with options K (gaining knowledge of academic subjects), G (exploring and developing values and attitudes), A (meeting people and making friends) and H (learning about human relations) receiving the highest ratings. Thus academic considerations on the one hand, and maturational and social development on the other, are the most common motives the subjects claim to have. In contrast, I (learning to study independently)[2], M (learning about what is happening in Japan and the world), D (learning practical skills) and F (developing creative talents) are rated relatively low, which

Table 1
PANSI Part 1: Objectives in attending university

3/4 YR	1 YR	WOMEN	MEN	ALL
G 4.33	**A** 4.25	**K** 4.32	**G** 4.14	**K** 4.20
K 4.27	**K** 4.10	**G** 4.18	**K** 4.07	**G** 4.16
A 3.90	**H** 4.04	**A** 3.93	**A** 4.02	**A** 3.97
H 3.83	**G** 3.96	L 3.80	**H** 3.95	**H** 3.82
B 3.63	L 3.65	**H** 3.70	B 3.93	B 3.79
E 3.50	B 3.61	B 3.66	E 3.64	L 3.60
F 3.47	E 3.46	I 3.66	F 3.40	E 3.51
L 3.30	I 3.43	E 3.39	L 3.36	F 3.37
I 3.13	F 3.14	F 3.34	D 3.05	I 3.34
M 3.10	M 2.75	M 2.91	M 3.02	D 3.17
D 3.07	D 2.71	D 2.73	I 3.00	M 2.96
C 2.33	C 2.18	C 1.93	C 2.60	C 2.26
J 1.60	J 2.04	J 1.68	J 1.69	J 1.68
N 1.13	N 1.54	N 1.25	N 1.40	N 1.32
n=30	n=28	n=44	n=42	n=86

may indicate something about the subjects' perceptions of a university's role in society. It seems to be perceived as a place where knowledge of a strictly academic kind will be received, rather than as a place where skills and talents can be actively developed, a place for looking inwards at oneself rather than outwards at the world at large.

The high rating of G (exploring and developing values and attitudes) and H (learning about human relations) correlates with option J in Section 2 (talking about yourself, your ideas and feelings) which is also perceived as highly important. Both are concerned with personal motivation and suggest that development in social and personal spheres is a predominant expectation in coming to university. Note in this connection that expression of their own opinions and feelings is also seen as a relatively important factor in effective learning (see below, p. 138, section 4.2N).

Section 2: Language skills that students most want to master

Responses in this section also were highly consistent across all the English major groups, with minor points of difference between them and the non-major groups.

The five most highly-rated items are all specifically oral-aural skills: J (talking about yourself), A (using English while travelling abroad), B (understanding English movies, music and radio, F (polite social conversation) and M (pronunciation). In contrast, the bottom two items are both writing skills: N (technical/academic writing, and D (personal writing). Know-ledge of grammar (K), and those items which mention academic or technical use of language skills, whether spoken or written (H, N and O) are all rated low. This implies that English is not seen as a possible medium for acquiring the academic knowledge so highly prized in Section 1, but rather as a means of communication.

Overall, an order of priority is indicated for the various skills areas as follows:

> TOP: "light" speaking and listening skills, and pronunciation practice;
>
> BOTTOM: academic or technical reading skills, followed by grammar, and least important of all, writing skills.

It is interesting to compare this with what they are actually required to do in their English courses. Koike et al. (1983) report that in 80% of English classes for non-English majors teachers will use a reading text, and in 60% their favoured classroom procedure is transla-

Table 2
PANSI Part 2: Importance of gaining competence in various skills

3/4 YR	1 YR	WOMEN	MEN	ENG. MAJ	NON-MAJ	ALL
J 4.73	**A** 4.57	**J** 4.68	**J** 4.36	**J** 4.63	**J** 4.30	**J** 4.52
A 4.70	**J** 4.54	**A** 4.55	**A** 4.29	**A** 4.61	**A** 4.00	**A** 4.42
B 4.43	**F** 4.29	**F** 4.23	**B** 4.22	**B** 4.32	**B** 3.85	**B** 4.18
F 4.33	**B** 4.14	**B** 4.14	**F** 4.00	**F** 4.25	**F** 3.81	**F** 4.12
C 3.93	M 4.14	M 4.05	M 3.76	M 4.07	I 3.74	M 3.91
M 3.90	I 4.04	C 4.00	I 3.74	C 4.00	L 3.67	C 3.86
I 3.83	C 3.96	I 3.91	C 3.71	I 3.86	M 3.56	I 3.83
E 3.43	L 3.68	L 3.36	L 3.48	L 3.31	H 3.56	L 3.42
L 3.30	G 3.50	E 3.18	H 3.32	E 3.24	C 3.54	E 3.20
K 3.20	H 3.36	G 3.18	E 3.21	K 3.14	G 3.37	G 3.19
G 3.10	K 3.36	K 3.07	G 3.19	G 3.10	E 3.11	H 3.14
O 3.00	O 3.25	H 2.98	O 3.12	H 2.95	O 3.11	K 3.07
H 2.90	E 3.11	O 2.89	K 3.07	O 2.95	N 2.96	O 3.00
D 2.83	D 3.00	D 2.75	D 2.88	D 2.81	K 2.93	D 2.81
N 2.33	N 2.71	N 2.57	N 2.55	N 2.37	D 2.81	N 2.56
n=30	n=28	n=44	n=42	n=59	n=27	n=86

tion into Japanese. Kitao et al. (1988) examined 213 college English textbooks published in Japan in 1985. They state that all but two of the texts had explanatory notes in Japanese, and only a quarter had exercises, usually of a few superficial and limited types. They conclude: "there is little for students to do but translate the texts word for word into Japanese." (p. 135). The situation for English majors is hardly better. In their first two years, in addition to the reading classes, they will usually be taught composition, grammar, pronunciation and the history of English literature. In the more progressive universities there will also be listening/conversation lessons, almost always taught by a native speaker, though rarely will the class-size be less than thirty, and often more than fifty.

It is clear that a lot of time is spent working on skills which are not thought to be important, while relatively little is spent on those deemed most important. If one compounds this with findings from Section 4.2, which indicate that traditional teaching methods are perceived as relatively ineffective, it amounts to a strong negative evaluation of the status quo—much time ineffectually spent trying to teach unimportant skills. It is also noteworthy that the four most highly rated items are the ones usually taught by native speakers.

The high rating of M (pronunciation) may imply that good pronunciation is seen as being an essential element of a good command of English. This might be explained in terms of students wanting to acquire the most immediately obvious outward signs of being a fluent, native-like speaker, particularly in the context of the allegedly poor pronunciation of most Japanese teachers of English.

Section 3: Reasons for majoring in English

These results shed a very curious light on English majors' reasons for studying the language. The highest ranking item, N (to experience non-Japanese ways of thinking), and the fourth-ranked item, C (to be an international person) are both vague, abstract terms that reflect important principles underlying Japanese educational policy. The former is an example of so-called "Nihonjinron", the uniqueness of the Japanese, and the latter is a reflection of the government's recent emphasis on the need for Japan to internationalise. Van Wolferen (1989, pp. 266, 415) and Mouer and Sugimoto (1986) provide detailed evidence of the way in which the government has pro-

Table 3
PANSI Part 3 (Majors) : Reasons for majoring in English

3/4 YR	1 YR	WOMEN	MEN	ALL
%	%	%	%	%
N 67	N 75	B 73	N 69	N 66
C 63	L 75	L 70	C 59	L 64
L 60	B 70	F 63	L 59	B 63
B 57	I 65	N 63	E 59	C 54
F 57	F 55	I 63	B 52	F 49
M 57	C 50	D 53	J 52	I 49
D 47	K 50	C 50	F 45	D 47
E 47	J 40	M 50	M 45	M 47
I 40	M 40	J 40	D 41	J 46
J 40	D 35	G 37	I 34	E 44
G 23	E 30	E 30	K 24	K 27
A 13	A 20	K 30	A 21	G 25
K 13	G 15	A 7	O 21	A 14
O 10	O 15	H 7	G 14	O 10
H 7	P 5	O 0	P 3	H 3
P 0	H 0	P 0	H 0	P 2
n=30	n=20	n=30	n=29	n=59

moted both concepts. Yet becoming an "international person" obviously does not mean finding out about the outside world, for this item, O, came extremely low, the lowest serious item overall.

It is perhaps equally surprising that item M (learning about English-speaking cultures) was chosen by only 28 of the 59 respondents. In light of the high rankings for items N and C it was expected that this too would be ranked very highly, particularly since all the subjects are majoring in English.

The second and third ranked items, L and B, show an instrumental motivation with regard to future careers. 64% have this business motivation, more than have an interest in English cultures. It is, however, interesting to contrast this with the low ranking of item L in Section 2 (reading and writing business documents). Students feel that English is important for their careers, but mastering business English while at university is less so.

Of the three items concerned with going abroad, item I (holidays) was ranked sixth, item J (working abroad) ninth, and K (studying abroad) eleventh. Thus the best way for students to improve their English, by studying abroad, was also the least popular. It should be noted that expectations changed as students progressed through university: 50% of first years chose K, compared with 13% of third and fourth years. Even item I (holidays abroad) was chosen by less than half the English majors, with a large difference between male and female respondents: only 34% of the men want to holiday abroad, compared to 64% of the women. Even more discouragingly, 18 out of 59 respondents (31% of the English majors) fail to cite going abroad, for any purpose, as a reason for choosing to study English.

A further interesting point is that only 27% of respondents are interested in reading English literature (item G), in contrast to the 54% who enjoy English movies and music (item E). The men in particular were very uninterested in literature: only 14% marked item G, compared with 37% of the women. This is particularly depressing when one looks at the textbooks used in universities: of 182 reading texts published in Japan in 1985, English and American literature was the content of 68, and a further 62 were essays (Kitao et al. 1988, p. 132). Our finding suggests that there is little connection between student motivation and what is actually taught in university English departments, an interpretation borne out by findings in Sections 2 and 4.2.

Section 3: Non-English majors—to study English or not?

The small size of the sample makes any conclusions for this section tentative at best. In response to item a, the question "If English were not a compulsory subject, would you still study it?", 23 (85%) of the students answered yes, and 4 (15%) answered no. Consequently the n size for items b to l was reduced to 23.

The results in table 4 deal with the Keio University respondents separately, since they are atypical students, all having lived and studied abroad for some years, and they are excluded from the following observations.

The most interesting findings for this section are the contrasts between the non-majors and the English majors. The non-majors' reasons were much more concrete than the English majors'. The two highest ranked items were reading English books and magazines (item f) and going on holidays abroad (item g), chosen by 80% of the respondents (compared to only 49% of the English majors). Even more interestingly, none of the male respondents chose item l, experiencing non-Japanese ways of thinking (compared to 69% of the male English majors), though most chose item c, becoming an international person.

Overall, the small sample size for this section casts doubt on the validity of any cross-comparisons, but does suggest that a further survey with a more representative sample may bring to light some interesting differences between English majors' and other majors' reasons for studying English.

Table 4
PANSI Part 3 (Non-majors): Reasons for studying English

WOMEN	MEN	BOTH	KEIO
%	%	%	%
f 80	d 100	f 80	h 75
e 70	g 100	g 80	j 75
g 70	c 80	c 67	b 38
j 70	f 80	e 67	d 38
l 70	e 60	j 67	f 38
c 60	j 60	l 47	c 25
k 50	m 60	m 47	g 25
m 40	h 40	d 40	e 13
h 36	b 20	k 40	i 13
b 20	k 20	h 33	k 13
i 20	i 0	b 20	l 13
d 10	l 0	i 13	m 13
n=10	n=5	n=15	n=8

Section 4.1: Methods of evaluating work in English

Results for this section were extremely consistent: respondents overwhelmingly preferred tests in the form of interviews or vivas (item C) or continuous assessment (item E) as the best ways of evaluating their progress in English. They also felt that it was important for them to be involved in the evaluation process (item G). Such methods of evaluating student work are not common in Japan, and involving students in the process is virtually unknown. The third and fourth year respondents had, however, experienced them, and this perhaps accounts for the wider spread in their answers. Needless to say, the least popular method of evaluation, in-school paper tests, is also the one most widely-used in Japan.

Section 4.2: Preferred classroom procedures

Of the three top-ranked items, two (L and S) are concerned with physical movement, both by the students and by the teacher.

A clear dividing line can be seen in table 6 between items R and E: below this line fall all the items that list traditional teacher-centred materials and procedures. Item A (lecturing) item K (following a textbook) and item I (grammar) are in the bottom five, with item G (translation) only marginally higher. Yet most English classes in Japan are taught using just such procedures, following a text and translating (Koike et al., 1983). As for classroom dynamics, the ways that emphasise control by the teacher were also ranked low: item O (complete domination) was ranked last, and item C (correction) and item E (interrogation) also fall

Table 5
PANSI Part 4.1: Evaluation of work in English

3/4 YR	1 YR	WOMEN	MEN	ALL
C 4.40	C 4.00	C 4.16	C 4.05	C 4.11
E 4.27	E 3.44	E 3.77	E 3.88	E 3.82
B 3.47	B 3.33	B 3.41	B 3.29	B 3.35
D 3.17	A 3.11	D 2.95	D 3.10	D 3.02
A 2.80	D 3.07	A 2.86	A 2.98	A 2.92
G 4.00	G 3.61	G 3.75	G 3.93	G 3.84
F 3.57	F 3.36	F 3.23	F 3.43	F 3.33
H 2.67	H 2.68	H 2.84	H 2.33	H 2.59
n=30	n=28	n=44	n=42	n=86

Table 6
PANSI Part 4.2: Effectiveness of classroom procedures

3/4 YR	1 YR	WOMEN	MEN	ALL
L 4.57	L 4.07	L 4.25	L 4.29	L 4.27
S 4.33	M 4.07	M 4.14	N 4.00	M 4.05
H 4.20	B 3.75	S 3.91	B 3.98	S 3.93
M 4.07	H 3.68	H 3.86	D 3.98	H 3.81
N 4.07	Q 3.64	N 3.62	M 3.95	N 3.81
D 3.94	S 3.64	Q 3.59	S 3.95	B 3.76
Q 3.83	N 3.54	R 3.59	Q 3.87	D 3.76
B 3.64	C 3.50	B 3.55	J 3.79	Q 3.73
R 3.60	F 3.46	D 3.55	H 3.76	F 3.59
F 3.60	J 3.46	F 3.48	F 3.71	J 3.59
J 3.46	D 3.43	J 3.39	R 3.52	R 3.56
E 3.10	R 3.43	E 3.07	E 3.29	E 3.18
C 3.04	K 3.18	C 3.02	C 3.29	C 3.15
I 2.83	G 3.14	G 2.98	G 3.14	G 3.06
G 2.70	E 3.07	I 2.86	K 3.05	I 2.90
P 2.53	I 3.00	K 2.75	I 2.95	K 2.90
K 2.46	A 2.93	A 2.66	P 2.61	A 2.59
O 2.40	O 2.86	O 2.52	A 2.52	P 2.52
A 2.23	P 2.50	P 2.44	O 2.48	O 2.50
n=30	n=28	n=44	n=42	n=86

below the line. These results again raise questions about the traditional methods and materials employed in Japanese universities.

The items above the line broadly refer to interactive learning procedures; apart from the two involving movement, the others are mostly about students taking control of their own learning and doing things they find personally rewarding: item H (discussing tasks in groups) item N (involving personal views and feelings) item B (working at one's own pace) and item D (creating things). Thus the real dichotomy here is between student-centred and teacher-centred learning.

The use of language laboratories (item M) is also very popular. This correlates with section 2, where oral-aural skills were ranked highest, particularly pronunciation, for which language laboratories in Japan are most often used.

The third and fourth year respondents, having studied through both traditional and learner-centred methods and materials, were more extreme in their responses than the first years, who may not have experienced non-traditional methods. The means of the latter range from only 4.07 to 2.50, while the third and fourth years' means range from 4.57 to 2.23, and they have many more items above 4.00 and below 3.00.

The middle-ranked items, and item S, suggest that the teacher's role should be one of guidance, not dominance: helping individuals (item S), taking an interest in them (item J) [1], and checking their progress (item Q).

CONCLUSION

The most important result of this survey is the dichotomy between what students want to learn and experience in university English classes, and what they are actually taught there. Since maturational and social development is a major motive in coming to university, and since academic knowledge of English is not highly regarded, it would make sense to develop English language courses that take account of this. The emphasis given to oral-aural skills, and to student-centred, interactive learning means that some fundamental rethinking of university language curriculums is required. Students do not like classes in which they sit passively, reading or translating. They do not like classes where the teacher controls every-

thing. They do not like reading English literature much, even when they are literature majors.

Thus it is clear that the great majority of university English classes are failing to satisfy learner needs in any way. Radical changes in the content of courses, and especially in the types of courses that are offered, and the systematic retraining of university EFL teachers in learner-centred classroom procedures are steps that must be taken, if teachers and administrators are seriously interested in addressing their students' needs.

NOTES

1: The writers wish to express their thanks to the following for their painstaking help with the translation: N. Tokumatsu, Y. Makiguchi, K. Ogawa, Y. Yasunaga and S. Ikuta.

2: Although option I (independent study) was ranked in a low position, all the options of Section 4.2 which concern student-centred classroom procedures are seen as being among the most effective ways of learning. This may imply that the concept of studying independently was too ill-defined for students to grasp, particularly since the concept of independent study is not emphasised in traditional Japanese teaching in schools and universities alike. Perhaps section 4.2 item P is indicative of the problem: "working on my own" had to be qualified as not working in a group so that no confusion would arise. Even so, this item was rated very low by the respondents.

3: With the reservation noted above that there is always some connotation of sexual interest in the Japanese translation.

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APPENDIX

The PANSI Questionnaire

Section 1

What are your main objectives in spending four years at this college, apart from improving your English? Mark each of the following possible objectives on a scale ranging from *highly applicable* to *not applicable at all.*

A 00000 To meet people and make friends
B 00000 To enhance my job prospects
C 00000 To become independent of my family
D 00000 To learn practical skills which will be useful in work/every day life (e.g., computing/car maintenance
E 00000 To have plenty of free time to pursue my own interests (sports, hobbies, travel, etc.)
F 00000 To find and develop my creative talents
G 00000 To explore and develop my own values and attitudes
H 00000 To learn about human relations
I 00000 To learn how to study independently
J 00000 To avoid starting work
K 00000 To deepen my knowledge of academic subjects
L 00000 To get qualifications (e.g. Eiken test/teaching certificate/ driving license)
M 00000 To become aware of what is happening in Japan and the world today
N 00000 I have no objectives

Section 2

Which of the following skills would you like to be competent in by the time you graduate? Mark each one on a scale from *very important* to *not important at all.*

A 00000 Cope in a variety of everyday situations in English when you're abroad (e.g. in a restaurant/at the station)
B 00000 Follow English movies, radio broadcasts & songs
C 00000 Read English magazines and/ or novels
D 00000 Write personal letters, stories or poems
E 00000 Remember a lot of vocabulary and idioms
F 00000 Participate in polite social conversations with non-Japanese speakers
G 00000 Follow lectures (in academic/ technical subjects) in English
H 00000 Read technical books or articles quickly and efficiently
I 00000 Translate smoothly from English into Japanese
J 00000 Talk about yourself, your ideas and feelings
K 00000 Master the grammar of English
L 00000 Read and write business letters/memoes/telex/etc.
M 00000 Acquire an excellent pronunciation
N 00000 Write technical or academic papers
O 00000 Participate in technical/academic discussions with non-Japanese speakers

Section 3

Why did you choose to major in English? Check (√) all the reasons that are applicable to you.

A ( ) You want to be an English teacher
B ( ) You want to get a job (other than teaching) where English will be

useful

C ( ) You want to be an international person
D ( ) Because you got good grades in English at school
E ( ) You enjoy English movies and songs
F ( ) You want to make foreign friends
G ( ) You want to read literature in English
H ( ) Because English is an undemanding subject
I ( ) You want to go on holidays abroad
J ( ) You want to live and work abroad
K ( ) You want to study abroad
L ( ) Because Japanese business people need to know English, the language of international trade
M ( ) You want to learn about English-speaking cultures
N ( ) You want to experience non-Japanese ways of thinking
O ( ) You want to keep in touch with what is happening abroad
P ( ) No particular reason

Section 3 Non-English majors

Please answer this question. Circle your answer.

a Yes / No If English was not a compulsory subject, would you still choose to study it?

If you answered NO, go on to Part 4.
If you answered YES, why do you want to study English? Check (√) all the answers that are applicable to you.

b ( ) You want to get a job where English will be useful
c ( ) You want to be an international person
d ( ) You enjoy English movies and songs
e ( ) You want to make foreign friends
f ( ) You want to read books and/or magazines in English
g ( ) You want to go on holidays abroad
h ( ) You want to live and work abroad
i ( ) You want to study abroad
j ( ) Because Japanese business people need to know English, the language of international trade
k ( ) You want to learn about English-speaking cultures
l ( ) You want to experience non-Japanese ways of thinking
m ( ) You want to keep in touch with what is happening abroad
n ( ) No particular reason

Section 4.1

What do you think of the following methods of evaluating your work in English? Mark each one on a scale from *an excellent method* to *a very bad method.*

A 0 0 0 0 0 In-school paper tests
B 0 0 0 0 0 Take-home paper test
C 0 0 0 0 0 Interviews or vivas
D 0 0 0 0 0 One or two short papers
E 0 0 0 0 0 Continuous assessment over the academic year

Who do you think should be responsible for evaluating your work in English? Mark each one on a scale from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*

F 0 0 0 0 0 The teacher alone
G 0 0 0 0 0 The teacher and you together
H 0 0 0 0 0 Your classmates in the same class

Section 4.2

Read the following statements which ask you about classroom procedures. Mark each one on a scale from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*

A 0 0 0 0 0 I learn effectively in class when the teacher gives a lecture
B 0 0 0 0 0 I learn effectively when I can work in class at my own pace
C 0 0 0 0 0 I learn effectively when the teacher corrects my mistakes immediately
D 0 0 0 0 0 I learn effectively when I'm drawing, designing or in some other way creating something in class
E 0 0 0 0 0 I learn effectively when I have to answer the teacher's ques-

tions in front of the class

F 00000 I learn effectively when the teacher tries out new methods and materials

G 00000 I learn effectively by making translations of spoken or written English into Japanese

H 00000 I learn effectively when, in groups of two or three, I am using English to complete a task (while solving a problem through discussion)

I 00000 I learn effectively when I'm practising grammar

J 00000 I learn effectively when the teacher takes an interest in me as a person

K 00000 I learn effectively by going through a textbook or reader in class

L 00000 I learn effectively when the learning activity involves physical movement (when the learning method incorporates some physical activity rather than just sitting at a desk)

M 00000 I learn effectively when I listen to tapes or the teacher in the language laboratory

N 00000 I learn effectively when the subject matter of the lesson involves my personal views and feelings

O 00000 I learn effectively when the teacher regulates everything that is said and done in class (when the teacher directs all aspects of the lesson)

P 00000 I learn effectively when I work on my own in class (not working in a group)

Q 00000 I learn effectively when the teacher checks that I've remembered what s/he has taught earlier in the class

R 00000 I learn effectively when the teacher uses methods and materials I am familiar with

S 00000 I learn effectively if the teacher moves around the classroom helping out as I work

Section 5

This section asks you about your hobbies and interests. Look at the list below, and check (√) any area that you are interested in. Write extra information on the lines.

( ) Sport: which sports?

( ) Books: what kinds of books?

( ) Modern music (Jazz, Pop)
( ) Classical/traditional music
( ) Fashion
( ) Travel
( ) Shopping
( ) Drawing/painting
( ) Movies
( ) Television
( ) Photography
( ) Theater/plays
( ) Debating
( ) World affairs
( ) Women's rights
( ) Human rights problems
( ) Racial problems
( ) Nuclear power/weapons
( ) Health
( ) Pollution/environment
( ) Psychology
( ) The supernatural
( ) Cars/bikes
( ) Science/technology
( ) The weather
( ) The business world
( ) Jobs/working life
( ) Foreign people/places/cultures
( ) Puzzles, quizzes
( ) Famous people
( ) Food & drink
( ) Japanese arts (like ikebana, etc.)
( ) Any other interests? Write them here:

大学生の要望、態度や関心事の概要

研究アンケート

第1部

英語の能力を伸ばすことは別として、この大学に入って1年間を過ごす目標は、何ですか。次の目標を《完全にあてはめる》から《全然あてはまらない》の5段階基準で評価してください。その目標があなたの場合に完全にあてはまれば、左の丸を塗りつぶしてください。

(例) ●○○○○

その目標があなた場合に全然あてはまらなければ、右の丸を塗りつぶしてください。

(例) ○○○○●

その目標があなたの場合にある程度あてはまれば、その程度によって中間の丸を塗りつぶしてください。

(記入例)

大部分あてはまれば ●○○○○
幾分かあてはまれば ○●○○○
少ししかあてはまらなければ ○○●○○

A ○○○○○ 人と会って友達になるため
B ○○○○○ 就職の可能性を高めるため
C ○○○○○ 家庭から独立するため
D ○○○○○ 仕事や日常生活に用いられる実技を身につけるため（例えば、コンピュータの使い方、自動車の整備など）
E ○○○○○ 趣味を生かす時間を得るため（スポーツ、音楽、旅行など）
F ○○○○○ 創作的才能を見つけたり伸ばしたりするため
G ○○○○○ 価値観や人生観を探ったり深めたりするため
H ○○○○○ 人間関係について学ぶため
I ○○○○○ 自主的に勉強することを学ぶため
J ○○○○○ 就職するのを遅らせるため
K ○○○○○ 学問知識を深めるため
L ○○○○○ 資格を得るため（例えば、英検、教員免許状、運転免許状など）
M ○○○○○ 日本国内や世界中で起こっているできごとについて意識を高めるため
N ○○○○○ 別に目標はない

第2部

卒業するまでに、次の技能のうち、どれに熟達したいと思いますか。各項目を《非常に大切》から《全然大切ではない》の5段階基準で評価して下さい。

(記入例)

非常に大切 ●○○○○
かなり大切 ○●○○○
やや大切 ○○●○○
あまり大切ではない ○○○●○
全然大切ではない ○○○○●

A ○○○○○ 海外へ行ったとき、色々な日常的な状況に対処すること（例えば、食堂とか、駅とかで）
B ○○○○○ 英語の映画、ラジオ放送、歌などを聞き取ること
C ○○○○○ 英語の雑誌や小説を読むこと
D ○○○○○ 私信、小説、詩などを書くこと
E ○○○○○ 単語やイディオムを訳出記憶すること
F ○○○○○ 日本語のできない外国人と社交的な会話をすること
G ○○○○○ 英語で学問的、専門技術的な講義を理解すること
H ○○○○○ 専門技術についての本や論説を早く効果的に読むこと
I ○○○○○ 英文を日本語に円滑に訳すこと
J ○○○○○ 自分自身の考えや感情について話すこと
K ○○○○○ 英語の文法に精通すること
L ○○○○○ 商用の手紙、メモ、テレックス、などを読んだり書いたりすること
M ○○○○○ すばらしい発音を身につけること
N ○○○○○ 学問的、専門的な論説を書くこと
O ○○○○○ 日本語のできない外国人と学問的、専門的な会話をすること

第3部 英語の主専攻学生のみ

なぜ英語を主専攻にしたのですか。下の理由の

うち、あなたの場合にあてはまる全てに（X）印をつけて下さい。

A （ ）英語の教師になりたいから
B （ ）英語が役に立つ仕事につきたいから（教員を除いて）
C （ ）国際人になりたいから
D （ ）中学校や高校では、英語の成績が良かったから
E （ ）英語の映画や歌をよく聞いて楽しむから
F （ ）外国人と友達になりたいから
G （ ）英文学を読みたいから
H （ ）英語がやさしい科目だから
I （ ）海外旅行をしたいから
J （ ）外国に住んだり、外国で仕事をしたりしたいから
K （ ）留学したいから
L （ ）英語は国際貿易の言葉であるため、日本の会社で働く場合にもできなければならないから
M （ ）英語圏の国々の文化について学びたいから
N （ ）日本人と違う考え方を学びたいから
O （ ）海外で起こっているできごとに遅れたくないから
P （ ）別に理由はない

第３部　英語を主専攻にしていない学生のみ

たとえ英語が必修科目でなくても、あなたは選択すると思いますか。

A　する／しない（適当にOをつけて下さい）

（しない）と思う人は第４部へ直進して下さい。

（する）と思う人は、なぜ選択するのでしょうか。その理由のうち、あなたの場合にあてはまる全てに（X）印をつけて下さい。

B （ ）英語が役に立つ仕事につきたいから
C （ ）国際人になりたいから
D （ ）英語の映画や歌をよく聞いて楽しむから
E （ ）外国人と友達になりたいから
F （ ）英文の本や雑誌を読みたいから
G （ ）海外旅行をしたいから
H （ ）外国に住んだり、外国で仕事をしたりしたいから
I （ ）留学したいから
J （ ）英語は国際貿易の言葉であるため、日本の会社で働く場合にもできなければいけないから
K （ ）英語圏の国々の文化について学びたいから
L （ ）日本人と違う考え方を学びたいから
M （ ）海外で起こっているできごとに遅れたくないから
N （ ）別に理由はない

第４部１

英語の能力を評価する手段として次の方法をどう思いますか。《非常に良い方法》から《非常に悪い方法》の５段階基準で評価して下さい。

(記入例)

非常に良い方法 ●○○○○
良い方法 ○●○○○
まずまずの方法 ○○●○○
まずい方法 ○○○●○
非常に悪い方法 ○○○○●

A ○○○○○ 試験期間でやる筆記試験
B ○○○○○ レポート試験
C ○○○○○ 面接や口述試験
D ○○○○○ 短い論文一、二冊
E ○○○○○ 学年中の平常授業によっての評価

あなたの英語の能力をだれが責任をもって評価すべきですか。《非常に賛成》から《非常に反対》の５段階基準で表示してください。

(記入例)
非常に賛成 ●○○○○
どちらかといえば賛成 ○●○○○
どちらもいえない ○○●○○
どちらかといえば反対 ○○○●○
非常に反対 ○○○○●

F ○○○○○ 授業の担当教員だけ
G ○○○○○ 担当教員とあなた自身（二人で協議して評価する）
H ○○○○○ その授業の同級生

第４部２

授業の進め方に関する次の文章を読んで、その内容に関して《非常に賛成》から《非常に反対》の５段階基準で表示して下さい。

A ○○○○○ 先生が講義調で授業をすると能率

良く学べる。

B ○○○○○ 授業では自分のペースで勉強できるとすれば能率良く学べる。

C ○○○○○ 先生が学生の誤りをすぐ指摘すると能率良く学べる。

D ○○○○○ 絵を描いたり、設計したり、物を創造したりすると能率良く学べる。

E ○○○○○ クラスメートの前で先生の質問に答えさせられると能率良く学べる。

F ○○○○○ 先生が新しい教材や教え方を試しにやってみると能率良く学べる。

G ○○○○○ 英語（書き言葉、話し言葉）を和訳すると能率良く学べる。

H ○○○○○ クラスの一、二人のグループで英語で問題を解いたり議論したりすると能率良く学べる。

I ○○○○○ 文法の練習をすると能率良く学べる。

J ○○○○○ 先生が人間としてのあなた自身に関心を示すと能率良く学べる。

K ○○○○○ 授業では教科書やリーダーに沿って練習すると能率良く学べる。

L ○○○○○ 机に座っているだけでなく、活動を伴う法を学習に入れると能率良く学べる。

M ○○○○○ ラボ（LL教室）でカセットテープや先生の声を聞くと能率良く学べる。

N ○○○○○ 授業の内容が学生の個人的な意見や感情に関係すると能率良く学べる。

O ○○○○○ 先生が全面的な指示によって授業を進められると能率良く学べる。

P ○○○○○ 授業では個人個人で勉強すると（グループスタディではなく）能率良く学べる。

Q ○○○○○ 先生が授業中に教えてくれたことを覚えているかどうか同じ授業時間中に確認すると能率良く学べる。

R ○○○○○ 先生が使い慣れている教材や教え方を使うと能率良く学べる。

S ○○○○○ 学生が勉強しているあいだ、先生が教室を歩き回って個々人に教えてくれると能率良く学べる。

第５部

この部には、趣味や関心事についてお尋ねします。下のリストを見て、興味がある分野に（X）印をつけて下さい。

（ ）スポーツ；どんなスポーツ？＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

（ ）読書；どんな本？＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

（ ）現代音楽（ジャズ、ポップス）

（ ）ファッション

（ ）ショッピング

（ ）映画

（ ）写真撮影

（ ）討論

（ ）女性の権利に関する問題

（ ）人種問題

（ ）健康

（ ）心理

（ ）自動車やバイク

（ ）天気

（ ）仕事や職業生活

（ ）パズルやクイズ

（ ）飲食物

（ ）クラシックや伝統的な音楽

（ ）旅行

（ ）絵を書くこと

（ ）テレビ番組

（ ）演劇や芝居

（ ）世界の時事問題

（ ）人権に関する問題

（ ）核兵器や原子力

（ ）環境破壊や公害問題

（ ）超自然現象

（ ）科学やテクノロジー

（ ）実業界

（ ）外国の人、場所、文化

（ ）現代の人気タレントや有名人

（ ）日本的芸術（生け花、茶道など）

（ ）その他；書き入れて下さい

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LANGUAGE & COMMUNICATION

An Interdisciplinary Journal

Editors: **ROY HARRIS,** *Department of English, University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong,* and **TALBOT TAYLOR,** *Department of English, College of William and Mary, Williamsburgh, VA 23185, USA*

This journal is unique in that it provides a forum devoted to the discussion of topics and issues in communication which is of interdisciplinary significance. It publishes contributions from researchers on all fields relevant to the study of verbal and non-verbal communication. The investigation of language and its communicational functions are treated as a concern shared in common by those working in anthropology, the arts, artificial intelligence, education, ethology, linguistics, physiology, philosophy, psychology and the social sciences. Emphasis is placed on the implications of current research for establishing common theoretical frameworks within which findings from different areas of study may be accommodated and interrelated.
By focusing attention on the many ways in which language is integrated with other forms of communicational activity and interactional behaviour, it is intended to explore ways of developing a science of communication which is not restricted by existing disciplinary boundaries.

A Selection of Papers
M L SCHNITZER (USA), Critique of linguistic knowledge.
P M S HACKER (UK), Chomsky's problems.
J KITTAY (USA), On notation.
J D MAY (Australia), Questions as suggestions: the pragmatics of interrogative speech.
U HADAR (UK), Gestural modulation of speech production: the role of head movement.
G WOLF (USA), Malinowski's 'context of situation'.
N LOVE (South Africa), Language and the science of the impossible.
T J TAYLOR (USA), Condillac: language as an analytic method.
C G HENTON (USA), Fact and fiction in the description of female and male pitch.

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Cross Currents
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Winter 1991
Page 143

Exploring Community in a Content-Based Foreign Language Classroom

Steven Sternfeld

Life is lived in common, but not in community.
Michael Harrington, *The Other America*

I. The Meaning of Community

Harrington's terse statement is a particularly appropriate point of departure for my discussion of community in a content-based foreign language (FL) classroom. It establishes a framework for understanding community by telling us what it is not. Just as the old saying cautions us that a house is not a home, so Harrington reminds us that we can share our living space without sharing our lives, or to paraphrase Martin Buber, community emerges only when we see ourselves as living with one another and not merely side by side. Harrington's statement is also of interest because it brings to light a seemingly paradoxical linguistic phenomenon. For "living in common" and "living in community" are represented here as two very different experiences, despite the fact that "common" and "community" share a common root—the Latin *communis*. It is as if the forces of semantic evolution had conspired to create the subliminal message that sharing (i.e., to have something in common) is not always the equivalent of belonging (i.e., to go together), and that a group of people may share a house, a neighborhood, a workplace, or more to my point, a classroom, and yet fail to come together in community.

So what then is community, this living with one another rather than side by side? In this paper I shall use M. Scott Peck's definition of community, taken from his book, *The Different Drum: Community-Making and Peace*:

> If we are going to use the word [community] meaningfully, we must restrict it to a group of individuals who have learned how to communicate honestly with each other, whose relationships go deeper than their masks of composure, and who have some significant commitment to "rejoice together, mourn together," and to "delight in each other, make others' conditions our own" (1987, p. 59).

Over the past six years, first through trial-and-error and later through theory, I have struggled to gain a better understanding of the principles of community-building and how they might be applied to the content-based FL classroom. In sharing the story of my own exploration of community-building I hope to help other teachers committed to content-based FL instruction see the value of community-building and help them become more adept at promoting community in their own classrooms.

II. Community and Learning

The notion that a sense of community can make a significant contribution to effective learning has been explored by many writers in the fields of first and second language acquisition and literacy. An excellent example from the field of first language literacy is Frank Smith's monograph, *Joining the Literacy Club* (1984). Here Smith argues that children become literate (i.e., effective readers and writers) only if they are admitted into a "community of written language users" which he calls the "literacy club." Experienced members of this club accept children as "apprentices" who in time are expected to become "practitioners." Senior members demonstrate all the advantages of group membership to the newcomers and facilitate their participation in all club activities.

In the field of second language learning, two researchers stand out: Charles Curran and Earl

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Stevick. Curran developed a language teaching method called Counseling-Learning (also sometimes referred to as Community Language Learning) in which learning is seen as the result of total self-investment in community:

> We are talking about learning, then, not by students in isolation and competition or with the teacher removed but as a total community with knowers and learners all engaged together, as persons, in a designated learning area. In this concept, knowers and learners deeply need and are fulfilled by one another (Curran, 1983, p. 166).

In *Memory, Meaning and Method* (1976), Stevick argues that the ideal language classroom is one in which the learner has a "voice in community." He cites the work of several researchers in the field of second language acquisition in support of his assertion (e.g., Rivers, 1972; Nelson et al, 1970; Tursi, 1970); interestingly enough, however, it is the following observations of George Elliot, a teacher of creative writing, that Stevick finds to be among the most perceptive on the subject of community in the classroom:

> An alternative to squatting sequestered in the fastness of pedantry is to strive in the classroom to let come into being a fragile community. The extraordinary ingredient in making communities is not possessing the power to make them, but exercising that power, wanting them enough to risk failure. Our life is so far from nature now that many no longer know they have the power of communion, of making even fragile communities, and many have too little hope of exercising that power successfully even to try, even to want to try. The faith must be restored. What can we who are believers but not great prophets do to restore this faith except exercise that power as best we can (Elliot in Stevick 1976, p. 99).

III. The Emergence of Community

Despite his belief in the power of community, Elliot does not see community as something we can, or even should, bring forth at will: hence he qualifies the statement "a good class pulls together into a kind of community" with the caveat that this is

> only an occasional community [and] there is no way to prescribe how to bring such a community into being. Freedom to make or not to make a community of a class is essential if you are to make it at all (Elliot in Stevick, 1976, p. 99).

Not all would agree with Elliot that community in the classroom must, or should, emerge of its own accord. The emergence or genesis of community is a phenomenon which Peck has studied extensively; and he answers with a resounding "Yes!" to the question "Can groups be brought into community not by crisis, not by accident, but by deliberate design?" He claims that most people can learn the rules of communication and community-building and will willingly follow them. "In other words," he concludes, "if they know what they are doing, virtually any group of people can form themselves into a genuine community" (1987, pp. 83-84).

According to Peck, the "laws and rules" of community-building are best understood as part of a four-stage developmental model: pseudocommunity, chaos, emptiness, and community. The core of pseudocommunity is conflict-avoidance. Members seek to avoid conflict by minimizing or ignoring the existence of individual differences. In the next stage, chaos, members strive to obliterate these very same differences by healing and converting one another. The underlying motives here are to make everyone "normal" and to impose one's personal norm on the group.

There are two paths out of chaos. One is into organization, which Peck claims effectively precludes the further development of community. The other is into the third stage—emptiness. At this stage members need to empty themselves of a series of interrelated barriers to communication, including expectations, prejudices, and the need to heal, convert and control. The purpose of this emptiness is to make room for the "Other"—the new, the different, and most importantly, the other person. Once a

group is open and empty,

> [a]n extraordinary amount of [self-initiated] healing and converting begins to occur—now that no one is trying to convert or heal. And community has been born (Peck, 1987, pp. 103-104).

IV. Stumbling into Community

I myself did not come directly into an exploration of community in the classroom; indeed much like Peck, I "stumbled into community" over a period of several years. Catalyst for my exploration into community was my work as researcher, program designer and teacher in an ambitious content-based FL program for beginning-level college students.

I began development of the Immersion/Multiliteracy (IM/ML) Program at the University of Utah in 1985. The IM/ML Program was one outgrowth of the trend towards an interdisciplinary or area studies approach to modern FL study that began after World War II. My innovation was to apply the area studies model to beginning-level college FL instruction (see Sternfeld, 1988 & 1989). The designation Immersion/Multiliteracy reflected both the methodology and aim of the program. The methodology of the IM/ML Program was adapted from the Canadian Immersion Program, and as such followed a content-based approach to language instruction. The program's goal was to promote multiliteracy, defined as the pursuit of intellectually challenging and culturally broadening activities in more than one language.

After carrying out an initial pilot program in Spanish during the 1985-86 academic year, I went on to develop and teach first- and second-year IM/ML courses in French and Italian over a period of five years. At the same time I started training graduate students in a Masters in Teaching program to teach in the program, so that by 1989 we were offering first- and second-year IM/ML classes in Spanish, German, French, Italian and Chinese. Subject matter varied from course to course according to the availability and/or accessibility of reading materials. Topics included history, geography, civilization and culture, and current events (see Sternfeld, 1990 for details of the IM/ML Program).

During this period I experimented extensively with the development of appropriate instructional materials and the elaboration of teaching/learning strategies that would ensure that the FL learners were "ready, willing and able" to handle a content-based introductory course (Sternfeld, 1985 & 1987). It was during this prolonged experimental phase that community emerged as a unifying force in the classroom.

V. Community by Accident

The first signs of "community by accident" appeared early-on in the year-long pilot Spanish course. At least three factors seem to have contributed to this emerging sense of community: journal writing, student interviews and commitment to the IM/ML Program.

1. *Journal Writing*

From the outset of the pilot Spanish program, students were required to keep both daily and weekly journals. Initially written in English, these journal reports served two important functions. They allowed students to give me extensive feedback in English on the course and thus reduced the amount of time spent speaking English in the classroom. They also provided students with an opportunity to reflect on the nature of the immersion experience—an approach to language learning most students were unfamiliar with.

What stood out in reading the initial journal entries was their similarity. Not only were students using the same words to describe their feelings, e.g., "confused," "frustrated," and "lost," but they had remarkably similar, albeit from my privileged position blatantly erroneous, perceptions of their fellow learners; indeed, the most prevalent observation was something to the effect that "Everyone else in the class seems to have caught on except me." It was as if the students were all going through the same experience in isolation. In an effort to bring students together, to encourage them to "suffer together" and not merely "side by side," as it were, I decided to read excerpts from these journals aloud at the end of class each day of

the first week. The effect was immediate: students at once realized that they were not alone in feeling the way they did. And even if it was only frustration and confusion which initially brought them together, the old saw "misery loves company" never rang so true.

2. *Student Interviews*

During each class period I would set time aside to interview one or more students in front of the class. These conversations were intended to serve at least two purposes. First, they allowed me to generate conversational language that would be "comprehensible input" (Krashen, 1985) for the rest of the class that was listening to the interview and taking notes. Second, they provided a context for the embedded instruction of effective communication strategies, in particular how to carry on a conversation with little or no proficiency in the target language.

What had initially been seen primarily as a means for generating comprehensible conversational input soon proved to be an equally effective tool for bringing students together. The daily interviews eventually turned into a forum in which students would share freely with one another stories of their lives beyond the classroom. These stories helped students to see one another as more than just so many "bodies" placed "side by side" in a language classroom by bringing to light a wide range of similarities and differences that simultaneously brought them together while celebrating their uniqueness.

3. *Commitment to the IM/ML Program*

The third important factor was the need for students to make a conscious decision to stay in the IM/ML Program. All students were cautioned at the beginning of the year-long pilot Spanish course that the IM/ML Program did not articulate with the traditional, skills-based program, and as such students were not guaranteed that they could successfully transfer into the other program in subsequent quarters. Thus, IM/ML students needed to decide whether they were prepared to commit to the same teacher, the same classmates, and the same methodology for three quarters. Furthermore, those who did stay in the program for the entire year ended up spending considerable time together with a relatively small and stable group of students. This experience in itself seems to have promoted group identification and a heightened sense of group solidarity, feelings often lacking in other courses which students were taking concurrently at the university.

VI. Moving Deeper into Community

While I noticed these community-building developments during the year-long pilot Spanish course, I made little attempt to exploit them since I was not even sure they were susceptible to manipulation. Moreover, in retrospect it has become clear to me that to a certain extent the initial community created "by crisis" and "by accident" did not lead to a genuine sense of community for all students. Some students became what I would call guileful builders of pseudocommunity: Having understood the importance I was beginning to place on community-building in the classroom, they learned to feign a sense of belonging while all the time maintaining their "masks of composure."

Several more years of experimentation would follow, during which time three additional factors emerged as crucial to taking more students deeper into community: increased intensity of instruction, a no-English language policy, and a shift to non-traditional settings.

1. *Increased Intensity of Instruction*

My first experience with the effect of highly intensive instruction on community-building came in the summer of 1986 when I ran a seven-and-a-half-week, first-year Spanish IM/ML course. Meeting for four hours a day, five days a week, the class moved more quickly and further towards genuine community than the three quarter, one-hour a day pilot course carried out during the previous regular academic year. It was in this summer intensive course that I discovered what Peck describes as the power of fatigue to "loosen ego boundaries" and thereby move community members away from the "rugged individualism" that maintains isolation and towards the "soft individualism" that promotes interdependence.

2. *A No-English Language Policy*

In the third year of the program I fell into a new language policy. Up until that time the rule had been no English communication in class with the instructor except during special "debriefing sessions" held at regularly announced intervals (e.g., the last twenty minutes of Friday's class). Not surprisingly, many students simply waited until after class to ask their most difficult (and important) questions, questions pertaining to their doubts as to the efficacy of the program and their own abilities as learners. I began to feel over-burdened as the amount of out-of-class hand-holding escalated. Although the daily and weekly journals had in part been intended to provide the learners with a means of communicating these concerns in English, for a variety of reasons (lack of immediate feedback, unwillingness or inability to discuss these issues in writing) too many students were insisting on handling their problems in person and in English. In order to encourage students to use their journals for this purpose, I decided to institute a no-English policy in all oral teacher/student communication—inside and outside of the classroom.

While this did lead to a greater reliance on written communication, it also led to an unanticipated, and ultimately far more interesting, phenomenon. Convinced that I, the instructor, was in a sense "unavailable" because of my "refusal" to speak English, many students began to turn to one another to express those concerns which they had previously chosen to confide in me. In the face of such an obstinately "non-communicative" instructor, many students finally overcame their propensity for isolationism in the classroom and closed ranks with their fellow students.

3. *The Shift to a Non-traditional Setting*

In the summer of 1989 I team taught a non-credit experimental weekend Spanish IM/ML workshop intended for non-traditional students. The mini-course lasted twenty hours between Friday evening and Sunday afternoon. Its goal was to provide learners with an opportunity to use their Spanish in a non-traditional setting, in this case a private home, where we would share cooking and meals, watch videos, study current events, etc. Many factors seem to have contributed to moving the participants rapidly through Peck's stages of community-building, including the small class size (only seven students), the intensity of instruction (twenty contact hours during a forty-eight-hour period), the residential location, and the sharing of meals.

This weekend retreat happened to come at the end of the first week of a seven-and-a-half-week intensive Italian IM/ML course I was teaching the same summer. The Italian course was modeled on previous content-based summer IM/ML classes I had taught in Spanish and French. Italian history and culture was the subject matter. We met four hours a day, five days a week. The class was much smaller than previous summer intensive classes: about thirteen students initially compared to some twenty-five to thirty in Spanish and French. And yet I did not sense that students were "coming together" as previous groups had. This became even more obvious during the second week after having spent the entire weekend in the Spanish IM/ML workshop where the group had seemed to come rapidly and almost effortlessly into community.

By the third week I was doubtful that this group would achieve community. I thought back to the successful Spanish weekend workshop and decided that it would be worth bringing the Italian class to my home at least once for an Italian lunch. On Friday of the third week we arranged to have class at my home. After completing our regular class activities we jointly prepared and ate lunch. At the end of class I asked the students how they had enjoyed the experience. The response was unanimous: they did not want to go back to the university.

By now there were just nine students in the class and I thought I could handle that number on a daily basis. I agreed to hold class in my home as long as each student would assume a fair share of the responsibility for menu planning, shopping, cooking and clean-up. And so we spent the majority of the next four weeks studying Italian around the same dining room table where we would share our daily breakfast

and lunch. Not long after moving to this non-traditional residential setting, a class which initially had been rather fragmented grew into a tightly knit "family."

VII. Community by Design: The 4X Model

It was in 1990, after some five years of stumbling into (and out of) community, that I came upon *The Different Drum: Community-Making and Peace*. Peck's book provided me with a much-needed description of the nature and genesis of community. This *descriptive* model of community-building allowed me both to analyze my own experiences of "community by accident" and then, on the basis of this analysis, to develop my own *instructional* model for community-building.

What follows then is my current formulation of a "4X Model" for building community in a content-based FL classroom. The 4X model proposes four paths to exploring community: through experience, examination, exploitation and extension. The order in which these paths are presented here reflects an important principle of this model: While one *can*, to be sure, examine the nature of community before experiencing it, I have found that genuine community must be experienced to be understood and that examining the nature of community without experiencing some of its pain as well as its benefits is not time well spent. For this reason I choose to begin a FL course by literally provoking an experience of "community by crisis." Once students have had this initial experience, it is possible, if not indeed preferable, for students simultaneously to examine, exploit, and extend their fragile, emergent community.

In order for my discussion of this exploratory model to be as meaningful as possible, I will describe each path in terms of actual classroom practice; specifically, I will show how these paths were explored in the last two IM/ML courses in which I have been involved. The first course was a five-credit second-year Spanish course which I taught with a colleague in June of 1991. There were eleven students in the class which met for eight days (Monday-Friday and Monday-Wednesday) in a residential setting. The area studies component of this course centered around Latin American politics, literature and film. The second course was a twenty-five-credit first- and second-year intensive Italian course which I taught during summer quarter of 1991. There were seventeen students in this class which met Monday-Friday for seven weeks. During the first two weeks, class was held in a residential setting, after which we moved to the food and nutrition laboratory on campus. The area studies component of the Italian course focused on the history of Italy, and Italian film and literature.

In both courses the area studies component was complemented by a community-building component presented as a separate, but interrelated content area. The subject matter of the community-building component were the lives—past, present and future—of the students themselves, for sharing lives is the essence of community. It is then the activities associated with this community-building component that I will use to exemplify the 4X Model for exploring community in a content-based FL classroom.

The First Path: Experiencing Community

The two most effective strategies I have found for ensuring an immediate experience of community are the imposition of a target-language only policy and high intensity instruction. The combination of these two strategies almost invariably provokes a crisis situation that allows communities to *temporarily* form by bypassing the intermediate stages of community-building.

Initially, students tend to interpret a policy that prohibits the use of English in any teacher/student oral interaction as a refusal on the part of the instructor to cooperate with or help students. As a result, some students perceive the instructor as the "enemy" and close ranks with one another. Others are simply frustrated by their confusion and lack of understanding, and so they instinctively gather together during breaks and after class to "compare notes" and figure out what is *really* going on. In either case, the end product is students coming together in highly animated conversation, shar-

ing their own perspective on a unique experience that they are struggling through together. Since I first adopted this policy, I have repeatedly queried students at the end of the course as to its appropriateness. The response is invariably the same: Although students agree that the no-English policy creates a high degree of confusion (and anxiety), they support it precisely because it "brings them together."

The effectiveness of the no-English language policy is enhanced when combined with high intensity instruction. The more time students spend together in class, the greater the physical, mental and emotional fatigue engendered by the no-English language policy. And it is precisely this fatigue which loosens ego boundaries and opens students up to one another, a prerequisite for moving squarely into Peck's third stage, emptiness. Both the Spanish and Italian courses met six hours a day, from approximately 8:30 to 2:30, five days a week. Interestingly enough, in their final evaluations, several students in the eight-day Spanish course suggested that in the future the course might meet as an actual retreat with students living together around the clock. And, indeed, students in the Italian course opted to finish their 7-week program with a three-day retreat in a mountain home generously made available to the class by one of the "community members."

The next three paths to exploring community in the classroom all capitalize on this initial experience of crisis-induced community. The goal now becomes to transform, through examination, exploitation and extension, an intense, but ephemeral "community by crisis" into a stable, long-term "community by design."

The Second Path: Examining Community

The purpose of examining community is twofold: to allow learners to become consciously aware of the nature and benefits of community and to provide them with the tools to facilitate community-building in the IM/ML classroom and beyond. The core of this process is students' journal writing. In the seven-week Italian course students kept a weekly journal, first in English and later in Italian, in which they reflected on the experiences of the previous week. Each Monday journal reports from the previous week were circulated among the students. Students only needed to initial each other's report to indicate they had read it, although in some cases students chose to comment on the content of the report. Once all the reports had been read, we would discuss, in Italian, the similarities and differences that characterized individual students' experiences in the class and identify issues of concern that were susceptible to group intervention.

The Third Path: Exploiting Community

Exploiting the crisis-induced community involves engaging students in activities that encourage a systematic passage through Peck's four stages of community-building. The underlying principle here is to have students share as many different aspects of their lives—past, present and future—as possible. The four main activities that comprise this path to community exploration are autobiographical writing, student interviews and bio-sketches, personal presentations and "breaking bread."

Autobiographical Writing

On the first day of class in both the Spanish and Italian course students were given the homework assignment to write in English a one- to two-page essay of an autobiographical nature. The purpose of this essay was for students to communicate something of their essence to the other members of the class. For this reason, students were encouraged not to stress standard autobiographical data. On the second day of class, students distributed one copy of their essay to each member of the class. That evening each student had to write a short response to each essay; these responses were distributed among students on the third day of class.

Student interviews and bio-sketches

As previously mentioned, the teacher/student interviews allow students to learn about each other's lives outside the classroom. While a student is being interviewed the other students take notes which they eventually write up in the form of bio-sketches. At the end of the Spanish class, each student was assigned a biographer who conducted additional oral interviews with that student and wrote up a final biography that became part of a final "classbook," a packet containing all the major collaborative written projects of the students.

Personal Presentations

In both the Spanish and Italian courses students were asked to make oral presentations on a topic of personal significance. As with the initial autobiographical essay, the goal here was for students to reveal something of their essence. A sample of topics chosen by students include a student's search for her birth mother, an art therapy session, an Episcopal priest's description of his involvement in the Presiding Bishop's Fund for World Relief and a trip to the Soviet Union. One of the most provocative of all personal presentations was the somewhat somber tale of a student's decision to carry to term a child conceived out of wedlock—all the more revealing of this student's personality when she subsequently announced the story to be a fabrication!

"Breaking Bread"

"Breaking bread," i.e., sharing one's meal, has long been identified in Western tradition as central to informal social bonding. Indeed, the word "companion" has as its roots in the Latin *cum* and *panis*—with bread. In both the Italian and Spanish courses, the six-hour class gave us ample time to have breakfast and lunch together each day. Moreover, the inclusion of two meals a day in the class schedule created a large number of daily and weekly collaborative activities, including meal planning, grocery shopping, cooking, set-up and clean-up.

The Fourth Path: Extending Community

To extend community is to take community-building beyond the students in the class and beyond the classroom itself. For example, students in both courses were encouraged to bring to class friends and colleagues who were interested in the target language and culture. In the case of the Spanish course, students were taken on a field trip to local Hispanic merchants and restaurants. Because of the brevity of the Spanish class and the fact that many of the students would not be taking Spanish until the fall quarter, some three months away, students were encouraged to look at ways in which they could continue their collaboration after the end of the course. One group of students did set up a study group which continued throughout the summer.

A very different example of extending community was found in the Italian course. During the second week of class, an Italian businessman, in Salt Lake for a ten-day intensive English program, visited the class each morning to recount, in Italian, his own experience learning English. Students took notes and wrote up their version of his story, which they presented to our guest prior to his departure. At the end of the summer quarter, as one option for a final composition, students wrote letters to the Italian businessman in which they described what had gone on in their class since his departure.

VIII. Where to now?

I have proposed the 4X Model as a means of bringing teacher and students into genuine community, where we have "some significant commitment to 'rejoice together, mourn together,' and to 'delight in each other, make others' conditions our own'" (Peck 1987, p. 59). While ready to recognize the intrinsic value of community, many will still ask: Once we have become a community, where do we go? For teachers and students in the IM/ML Program the answer is quite clear: Our immediate goal is to help and support one another in the highly challenging and rewarding task of teaching/learning a foreign language through the study of the history and culture of the people who speak that language.

Content-based FL instruction for beginning learners is not necessarily the most *efficient* means of developing language proficiency in the short term, but it is arguably the most *effective* in the long term. This is an extremely important point, for while our immediate goal is for our students to use the classroom community to facilitate each other's learning, our ultimate aim is for these same students to become integrated into the larger community of foreign language speakers. Like the senior members of Smith's "literacy club," experienced foreign language speakers are there to demonstrate the advantages of membership in the foreign language club to these newcomers and facilitate their participation in club activities: All that is required of our students is that they "show up." It has been my experience that building community in a content-based FL classroom provides a very powerful incentive for FL students to seek out and apprentice themselves to experienced club members—native and non-native speakers alike, at home and abroad.

Note

I would like to express my grattitude to the hundreds of brave students who have participated in the IM/ML Program over the past six years and to all the dedicated teaching assistants whose contributions helped make the program what it is today. Finally, I would like to thank Teri Cononelos, Sylvette Norré and Chris L. Jorgensen for their invaluable comments on an earlier draft of this paper. Any remaining inadequacies are, of course, my own responsibility.

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Risk-Taking for the Timid Teacher

Ruth Wajnryb

Being Timid

Sometimes when teachers find themselves in situations where they are tempted to try out something new, or when they feel pressured to appear more progressive and less "traditional", they feel timid about taking risks in their teaching.

Years ago I read a book entitled *Psychodrama for the timid clinician* (Leverton, 1977). At the time, I was interested in using psychodrama in my language teaching, so I was attracted to the book by its title. Granted, I wasn't a therapist, and I wasn't intending to use psychodrama for therapy but for language teaching.

But the title was important nevertheless. The truth was I was feeling timid about trying out this new and quite radical procedure. And, to complicate things, I'm not really a risk-taker by nature. Somehow, the title made me feel safe because it inferred that my timidity was quite normal—after all, the book couldn't have been written for me alone, so there must be others like me. The discovery that I was not alone in my timidity gave me an oddly comforting sense of anonymity. But more importantly, it gave my timidity some legitimacy. With this came some sense of safety.

Communicative language teaching—the link

What has all this got to do with communicative language teaching? The communicative approach to language teaching is far from new. It's been around long enough for everyone in the field to have heard of it and to have become familiar with some of its characteristic features.

Of course, different people define it differently and apply it differently in class. For some, it simply means "more talk" in the classroom; for others, it has to do with the purpose of the language. For yet others (see Harmer, 1983), determining "how communicative" an activity is, involves considering a complex array of elements, their various purposes and outcomes.

I am not going to try to provide an additional definition of the term here. Suffice it to say that "communicative" covers a wide range of elements, and has to do with a more learner-centred approach. There is a greater focus on aural/oral skills, and more flexibility of roles than in the traditional classroom. The approach to teaching language forms is less mechanical; there is greater focus on fluency; and more attention is paid to meaning and purpose than form. Communicative language teaching also moves away from teacher-centred, lock-step teaching toward a greater variety of classroom interaction patterns.

However, what many of us tend to forget, especially teacher trainers, is that for many teachers much of the methodology associated with the communicative approach does not come easily. It goes against the grain of their previous training, years of personal classroom experience, and their own attitudes toward the role of teacher, making it a cause of concern and often anxiety.

Many of the fears that were around when "communicative" first became the buzz word are still far from allayed. This article is not about arguing the merits or demerits of the communicative approach to language teaching. It is about bringing existing fears and apprehensions up to the conscious level, identifying them, and reflecting on strategies and solutions. It is natural to be timid about taking risks. However, professional development demands that we give vent to these feelings, that we talk openly and without fear about the misgivings we hold.

The risks

What, then, are the risks for the timid teacher who wants to try out something new, or who is

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facing professional pressure to become a more "communicative" language teacher? As I see it, there are two primary ones. The first is a perception of a loss of teacher power, involving a fear of stepping into unknown territory. The second is a cross-cultural problem related to teacher and student roles and the expectations that people bring with them into the classroom. The rest of this article is devoted to a discussion of these concerns and to strategies for successfully managing timidity.

Loss of power

When teachers step away from a very controlled, teacher-centred, perhaps grammar and writing dominated form of teaching to something more communicative, they may feel like they are letting go of some of their control and losing some of their power. They feel like this because they *are* in fact relinquishing their complete hold over the classroom. As this happens, the once very familiar environment becomes less structured than it used to be. With the structure less clearly and firmly delineated, events become somewhat less predictable than they once were. Teachers become less sure of their footing, less able to call on stored knowledge and well-worn solutions. More is spontaneous, less can be planned, and more decisions are made while in the classroom.

Loss of power is a very real fear; it is a fear of the unknown, and one that may prevent risk-avoiders from experimenting with a more communicative approach in the classroom. What strategies are available to support those who are attracted to the approach or some aspects of it, but are wary or fearful about implementing it? Below is a "five step strategic plan" that may help—if only by teasing out some of the issues and confronting head on some of the questions implicit in risk-taking.

A 5 step strategic plan for coping with the unknown

Step 1: Knowing why

Teachers should know *why* they want to try something out, and try to verbalise their objective(s), e.g., to see if doing "X" makes the students talk more; to direct attention away from me for some of the time; to find out what other people have been talking about; because I'm bored with the way I teach and feel like trying a different way.

It is important to have a reason that comes from an internal motivation, rather than one imposed from without (e.g., people think I'm old fashioned; my head teacher expects it; my native-speaking teaching assistant doesn't think I'm capable of it). Any teacher's growth should be motivated by the teacher's own wish to grow professionally.

The agent for change, then, is the teacher. The voluntary nature of adult learning is a crucial factor. If the motivation is extrinsic, the chances are that the teacher will in some way sabotage the process, which will then allow the teacher to "go back" to the "old ways", exonerated temporarily, if only for the visible signs of effort expended.

Actually verbalising one's objectives provides something objective against which to evaluate the experience when it is finished, or, perhaps more importantly, while it is happening. It also gives the teacher a sense of awareness of what is happening. This allows the teacher "to call the shots" of their own experiment, and gives the teacher a very real sense of control over their own development.

Step 2: Pace yourself

Teachers should approach the endeavour in small steps, trying not to bite off more than they can chew. They should start off with something small and safe, and build up to a bigger risk with each success. "Letting go" of a bit of power and control and meeting with success supports teachers for the next attempt. If it was less than completely successful, teachers should take time to analyse the experience, and learn from it. This way they can put the experience to good use for the next time.

In other words, teachers should limit their goals to neat, manageable and realisable ones. They should take responsibility for programming their own success in steps that are tailored to their individual needs and work situations.

Step 3: Worst-case scenarios

Before trying something new teachers should ask themselves "What's the worst thing that could happen to me?" Very often the anxiety generated by fear of the unknown is a very free-floating one, which, when pinned down to

an anchor question becomes a lot less fearsome.

Step 4: "What if..." Some coping strategies

But *what if* the worst *does* happen? The next step is to plan some strategies for coping with one's fear. Let's take the very common fear many teachers have of "not knowing in public", being "caught out" by a question from a student which the teacher can't answer.

One response is for the teacher to admit without hesitation or apology, that he or she doesn't know. After all, teachers are not walking reference books—the human brain cannot store all information ready for retrieval at a moment's notice. Consider a more professional response: "I'll look it up, find out and get back to you about this". As long as the teacher keeps the promise, this response is a valid one.

Alternatively, a response which seeks to involve the learners as co-explorers on the journey to knowledge asks "Does anyone know?" Another response is to say "Why don't we all make an effort to find out and pool our resources at our next meeting".

This approach to "being caught out" in class opens up a new set of roles and expectations for students and teachers, and, among other things, rids everyone of the illusion that learning is a uni-dimensional transmission of information.

Step 5: Who owns the problem?

If indeed students expect teachers to know all the answers, do all the preparation, make all the decisions, and take all the responsibility for their learning, then there is a problem, but it's not the teacher's—it's the students'. This may indicate a need for the teacher to put some distance between herself and the students and to find strategies to help the students assume more of the decision-making power in their learning career.

Cross-cultural factors

The second major risk that teachers may perceive in wishing to take more risks in the classroom is of a cross-cultural nature and has to do with teacher and student roles and the expectations that people bring with them into the classroom. It may be that the students have culture-based expectations of a teacher that place the teacher firmly in the traditional role of knower, informer, presenter, explainer, and arbiter. This is a *tabula rasa* approach to learning—the teacher fills up an empty vessel; the learners passively allow themselves to be filled.

Respect for the teacher is often bound up with the fulfillment of this traditional role. Relaxing the traditional monopoly of power and control, and letting some decision-making be done by the students may generate the feeling that the teacher is faltering in his or her role and is therefore less worthy of respect. To complicate matters, students themselves might be fearful about taking on different roles. They may, in their apprehension, look to the teacher for much-needed comfort and security. If, meanwhile, the teacher has moved out of the "controller" role into the "facilitator" role, learner apprehension may be further exacerbated.

The problem may be exacerbated in a monolingual, monocultural class when the teacher, who belongs to the same language and culture, is being assisted by a native-speaking English teaching assistant. Stepping out of traditional roles in this context may be seen as losing face in the eyes of the students.

Confronting culture head on

Both of these instances are concerned with the cultural dimension of language teaching. It is axiomatic that when we learn a language we learn a culture. There is beauty in this, but there are also problems. The sorts of issues raised above have to do with cultural realities of which language is the most important manifestation. They have to do with the way people see the world, carve up reality, and interpret experience. It is my view that these sorts of issues need to be discussed in the classroom. Certainly with the adult learner and the young adult these topics should not be ignored. The most clear-cut and direct pathway towards an awareness of cultural relativity is through recognising the salient issues. Of course, a certain level of language is needed for this discussion to be meaningful. If language level prevents this I would strongly urge a role for the first language here.

Teaching as "magic"

Teaching is not a magic craft. There is no point in keeping the students in the dark about what is happening in the classroom. If a teacher wants to try out a communicative activity or have the students participate to a degree that they are unaccustomed to, it is important to set the scene appropriately.

It is helpful to tell students what activities are planned, why and how they all fit together, and where the activities are headed. Teachers should talk to students in a conceptually accessible way, about language theory and language learning. This might be as simple as saying: Language is a tool for communication, and I believe people learn things by doing them, not just by hearing about them. The teacher should then show the students how the activity fits into this model (e.g., it uses language for communication and gets them to do something purposeful with the language).

Asking students what their goals are and trying to show how these may be achieved according to what the teacher has planned will enable students to see that everyone is heading in roughly the same direction. It is vital to enlist the learners' understanding of the process and the intended outcome so that they can take some meaningful stake in both the journey and the destination. Essentially all learning—adult and child—is voluntary and is based on need or motivation or both. Working to enlist the active engagement of the learners is a crucial factor.

A final word, in favour of risk

Risk is a very real and uncomfortable, even distressing, phenomenon, so why do it? Many reasons can be offered. One has to do with the nature of learning and the strategic value of being able to deal with ambiguity and tolerate uncertainty. This applies to language learning (see, for example, Rubin and Thompson, 1982), but I suspect, like many language learning dicta, it might also be more generally applicable to mainstream learning contexts. It includes being open to new information, being flexible, allowing for reappraisal, not demanding immediate or neat solutions, and enjoying the journey rather than restlessly seeking the destination.

Another reason for approaching risk in a more positive state of mind might be best expressed through the "benign Trojan Horse" image (quoted of Mario Rinvolucri, in Lindstromberg, 1990, pg. xii):

> If a teacher uses an activity involving an unfamiliar technique, they may incorporate this technique into their repertoire if it works well. They may use it in other activities too. If the technique is an expression of an approach (or method) unfamiliar to the teacher, pennies may begin to drop and the teacher may take on a practical competence in the new approach 'from the bottom up'.

This view has us turn on its head the hallowed belief that "sophistication of thought necessarily begins with theory and high-level methodology and works its way down to practice" (xii). In fact, it can work extremely well the other way, starting off in a room with students, chairs, a board and a teacher. Even a timid one!

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BRIGHT IDEAS

The Big Picture Process Activity

Laurie Tellis

The ability to accurately describe a process is especially valuable for learners of business English. These learners may need to explain manufacturing processes, ordering and distribution systems, or hiring and training procedures, to name a few. The Big Picture Process Activity was originally developed for use in an intensive one-month residential business communication program. It gives students practice in describing a process and using "process language."

For the purpose of clarity I would like to define "process language" as a combination of sequence markers and the passive voice. Sequence markers clarify the order of steps in a process and include things like "first of all," "after that," "simultaneously," and "in the final stage." The passive voice is used to describe technical processes where the action is usually much more important than the agent: "The chassis is assembled." The students should have a fairly good command of sequence markers and the passive voice before beginning The Big Picture Process Activity. The activity offers an opportunity for further practice, and for increased fluency in using this type of language.

Where Things Come From and How Things are Made

The Big Picture Process Activity (for which I have yet to come up with a better name) is based on a series of pictures from the fascinating *Where Things Come From and How Things are Made* (Usborne Publishing, 1989). This book has great cartoon-type illustrations of many processes, from cornflake production to the building of suspension bridges. Each illustration to be used is photocopied and enlarged. I started out with making shoes, making cornflakes, and making tin cans. Then the numbered sentences that describe the processes are cut off. Only the words that label various parts, ingredients, or equipment, remain. The pictures then may or may not be photocopied again, and are pasted onto colored construction paper.

The Activity

Before class or during a break, I put up a few of the process pictures on the classroom walls—one picture for every two students. I spread them out, put them on different walls, and when the students come in there is immediate interest. They walk around, examining and talking about each one, usually without any instruction from me.

After a few minutes I ask that two students stand by each picture. A few students have strong preferences, but most are pretty flexible; I've never had a student throw a tantrum because his or her first choice was taken. One time, several students cheerfully told a classmate he couldn't "have" the tin can process, because it was directly related to his line of work.

I then tell the students to take their picture to a desk or a corner or wherever they feel comfortable. They are to work together and try to describe the process to each other. They may NOT write anything.

During this stage I want them to become familiar with the basic process. They may have problems with vocabulary; I tell them that for now, they should describe the process the best they can. They should use words they already know to explain objects or actions they are unable to name. In a few minutes they'll have more information.

I don't let this go on too long, maybe five or

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ten minutes, depending on the frustration level/interest of the class. By this time they have a good idea of what they need to say, and what vocabulary they need. I now give each pair a word list. For each process I have created a word list which consists of relevant nouns, verbs, adjectives, and prepositions. It is color-coded by parts of speech, e.g. nouns are in blue, verbs are in green. The appearance of the same word in two different groups enables students to recognize the dual function of some words. For example, in the process of milk production, 'milk' is both a noun and a verb. This color-coding system has been used with other class activities, so the students immediately recognize the format. By the time they get the word list, they have been struggling to describe things in a roundabout way and are eager for useful vocabulary.

The students continue describing their process to each other, using the word list as a reference. I think this phase in the activity is very satisfying for the students as well as the teacher. The students are all talking the whole time, using all their "process language" as well as politely agreeing and disagreeing with each other, asking for clarification and so on. I walk around listening and answering questions. The word lists have grammatical markers on them, such as [-s] [-ing] [p.p.], which I use for relatively unobtrusive error correction. For example, if a student says, "The tinplate is bended on a machine" I use a pencil to point to 'bend' in the verb list and then [p.p.]. The student usually repeats the sentence correctly. For lower-level classes, I include irregular past participles on the word lists.

After a while I interrupt the class. I ask them to think of themselves as representatives of the company that makes the pictured product. They will soon give a brief presentation describing their production process, to be followed by a brief question and answer period. They will need to consider a name for their company, the concrete stages and steps involved, and how they'll share the responsibilities of the presentation. I also call their attention to the 'additional information' provided on the bottom of the word lists. This consists of one or two sentences, taken from the book, which clarify or expand some aspect of the process. Students may choose to incorporate this information into their presentations.

At this point I allow them to write, but only an outline of stages and steps, NOT whole sentences.

The presentations are usually a lot of fun. The large pictures serve as visual aids. The audience is interested because each group explains a different process. The Q&A periods produce questions ranging from "Who are your main competitors?" to "How many cornflakes are in one box?" Afterwards, the audience may be asked to give (brief) general feedback to each team. I audiotape the presentations, and select several key sentences to type up for error correction the next day.

Alternatives and Options

This activity, including the presentations and breaks, has taken between one-and-a-half to two hours depending on class level (upper basic to advanced) and size (six to eight students). The amount of time students have to describe the process and to prepare their presentations can be adjusted to the class. If they work a while, then take a break, I may ask them how much more time they need, and negotiate if necessary. With one lower-level class I felt I had given them too much time in the beginning, but they felt ready for the presentations, did an excellent job and increased their confidence.

For learners of business English, the preparation and delivery of technical information (not to mention practical experience using a visual aid) is extremely relevant. On the other hand, the presentation portion of this activity should not be omitted simply because a given class is not focused on business English; it is a useful fluency exercise for all English learners.

A word about the pictures—they range from fairly simple to complex. The students' level must be kept in mind when processes are chosen. I have roughly grouped some of the processes in the Usborne book into levels of complexity, Group 1 being relatively simple and Group 3 the most complex.

One option is to take a variety of pictures to class and let the students choose.

Teachers should also consider the amount and kind of vocabulary the students will need. The shoe-making process, for example, is very interesting and relatively simple, but it con-

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
pencils	paper	bread
spaghetti	fizzy drinks	reels of cotton
milk	glass bottles	woollen sweaters
leather shoes	tinplate cans	bars of soap
fish fingers	breakfast cereal	

tains a lot of vocabulary the students will probably never need or see again (vamp, last, shank). The word lists should be kept simple, especially at lower levels.

In this activity, learners spend most of the time speaking, and practicing "process language." They also have an opportunity to listen to other processes being described, practice their presentation/fluency skills, and have a little fun.

Usborne books can be ordered in Japan from:

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No Excuse for Boring Classes

Frank Daulton

Isn't it amazing how well Japanese students draw cartoons? They are often very stylized, faces having huge eyes and no other discernable feature, or sometimes painstakingly detailed, like sword-wielding heroes fighting Godzilla. And at the local music shop, I am always running into my students there for "ama ban" (amateur band) practice, somehow having escaped the "juku" for a night. And consider the psychedelic socks and gravity-defying hairstyles of male high school students.

What's the connection? These are all ways that Japanese students fight the system to express their personal creativity.

In many ways the Japanese classroom environment discourages personal creativity; it encourages silent notetaking, doodling, note passing and napping. Roaming the halls of my high school, I have never overheard a class discussion or even a student's question. The English education system has been one of the worst culprits, grammar-translation not allowing personal creativity. Students sublimate these energies into their clubs and art classes, cartoons, bands and choice of socks. Occasionally it is explosively vented at "bunkasai" culture festivals. However, today's communication-oriented classroom is the perfect environment to tap this personal creativity, and Assistant English Teachers in team-teaching situations can be the catalysts.

I had become increasingly wary of the textbooks I'd been using at my high school. The common format was a reading selection accompanied by bore-the-chrome-off-bumper questions. The reason my students were not raising their hands was not that the questions were too difficult (answering often involves locating a word from the question in the text and then reading that sentence without understanding anything). A major reason for their malaise was the utter lack of relevance of the material to their interests. And no matter who read the answer, the answer would be the same.

On the verge of joining my students in semi-consciousness, I introduced some more CREATIVE activities to my team-teaching partner, and we escaped from the hapless routines of

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the textbook.

For example, our textbook introduced excuses, with examples like, "I'm late because I missed the bus." Remembering a student in a previous class whose excuse for being late was being "attacked by a sleepy monster" (an excuse approved by the office—his pink, late-slip hankoed "pon!"), I concocted a competition.

I asked the students to invent their own, amusing excuses for being late for a class. I stressed that I didn't want believable ones—I wanted funny ones. They considered their excuses individually for 10 minutes. Then, in groups of four, they stood and responded to the question: "Why are you late for class?" The JTE and I then decided who was the best excuse-maker of the four, and that student would remain standing. The best excuse-makers of all the groups would then compete in a championship round to decide the EXCUSE CHAMPION. This round was decided by class vote, thus keeping all the students involved.

Here are some of the excuses we heard when students responded to, "Why are you late for class?" They range from plausible to outlandish.

—"My house has forty floors and my bedroom is on the top floor and the elevator broke."
—"My shoes were sick this morning."
—"It snowed around (only) my house last night."
—"I got lost in my house and couldn't find the front door."
—"The way to school became a maze."
—"My uniform was eaten by a mouse."
—"I dreamed I came on time."
—"I was home thinking of an excuse."
—"The school ran away from me."
—"Who am I!? Where am I!?"
—"I met Mr. Wiki on the way to school." (Mr. Wiki is that *gaijin talento* [foreign talent] from Sri Lanka on morning TV who stops pedestrians in Japan's big cities to ask them questions.)
—"I died and I'm a ghost."
—"I met my dead grandfather on the way to school."
—"A thief stole the bus."
—"I thought the school was absent today."
—"My friend was late."
—"I missed my bicycle." (A variation of missing the train, and my favorite excuse.)
—"My bicycle was breakfast." (The champion excuse.)

For a class of 22, this activity took about 40 minutes. It gave all of the students an opportunity to express their personal creativity, in English. The positive reinforcement was the teachers' and classmates' laughter. It was interesting for everyone and brought home the idea that English is a tool for expressing oneself, and not just a way to tell the teacher what Mike's father thinks of sushi.

Japanese students, often belittled in the West as study drones, are, in fact, creatively gifted people. The discipline required in preparing for entrance exams allows them to focus on whatever project captures their imagination. This talent combined with their unused personal creativity is an awesome classroom resource. With imaginative lesson planning, we can direct this power of personal creativity toward learning English.

Cassette Tapes, Vocabulary & Homework

John F. Mancuso and George Stenson

You teach 50 students once a week and as a professional you're concerned they aren't learning a lot of English. Repetition drills are a drag, you can't listen to 25 conversations at once and you don't have the time to correct 50 journals every week. Who ya gonna call? We had this problem when teaching 50 Red Cross nursing students once a week for 90 minutes. We put our heads together and have come up with a solution that could be the ticket to your students' success.

We have two ideas that have proven successful. The first idea was taken from the superlearning methodology (Ostrander,

Schroeder, & Ostrander, 1979). Superlearning is a revolutionary idea based on the work of Dr. Lozanov who developed the suggestopedia methodology. Superlearning differs from other methodologies in that no emphasis is placed on student-teacher dynamics and class structure. The second idea resulted from our desire to check the students' listening ability without using limited class time.

Our first idea was to make a superlearning tape. There are two sections to the superlearning tape. First a bilingual Japanese-English person reads vocabulary items at regular intervals. Superlearning suggests a unit of information (words, phrases and sentences) from a textbook be read onto a 30 minute tape. They are first read in Japanese and then in English, according to superlearning methodology. (If you can not find a bilingual person, two people of the same sex can do the readings.) Superlearning suggests that there should be a four-second silent interval before the next unit is read. Additionally, units are read with alternating intonation: normal, soft and loud. (If the reader does not adhere to this suggestion, it is no major problem. The purpose for the alternating intonation is to keep the students interested in the material.) The vocabulary tape should be no longer than twenty minutes.

The second section is a repetition of the first section with baroque music played slightly lower in volume than the speaker. We used Bach, Corelli, Handel and Vivaldi selections. The type of instrument used in the selection will not alter the effects of superlearning. What is important is the use of baroque music. A two or three minute allegro section of music could be added to the end of the tape.

We experimented with a variety of ways of mixing the voice and music in the second section. If you do not have access to a mixer, try the following technique. You need two tape recorders. Put the baroque music tape in one recorder and have the bilingual person record the vocabulary items into the second recorder. We found that the recorder with the baroque music should be placed behind the person speaking, with the volume slightly lower than the voice of the bilingual person.

When you give the cassette tape to the students, they are instructed to read the script and listen to the tape for the first part. Then, they put aside the script, relax and listen to the second part (Voice with music).

The students were asked to purchase the tape at a nominal fee (barely above cost) and listen to the tape two or three times a week.

Our second idea was to make a 16-item Challenge tape in English only. One Challenge per week was given as homework, but 4 extra Challenges were made just to be on the safe side. Our reader read the Challenges onto a cassette and this was also sold to the students.

Each Challenge consisted of simple steps towards a more complex goal. The vocabulary of the Challenges was included in the superlearning tape. The Challenges got progressively more complex and used less of the vocabulary on the cassette, but built on the structures and vocabulary learned later in class. For example,

Challenge One
Get a piece of paper.
Write your name in the upper right hand corner.
Write your address in the upper left hand corner.
Write your age in the lower left hand corner.
Fold the paper in half.
Staple the paper shut.
Give the paper to your teacher.

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George Stenson is director of ACE Center for English Language Education in Tokyo and a Visiting Professor at Asia University and Nihon Junior College of Economics. He has lived and taught in Japan for 9 years.

Challenge Sixteen

Go to a grocery and look at the price of carrots.

Write down the price of carrots.

Go to another grocery store and compare the price of carrots with the first store.

Now, go to a convenience store and write down their price for carrots.

Write a short letter to your teacher telling her where she can buy the cheapest carrots.

Tell her in class where she can buy the most expensive carrots.

The Challenges have two advantages. First, since the students do not get a script of the Challenges, they have to practice listening and second, you can check their listening comprehension every week by merely accepting their homework assignments. The vocabulary tape has another advantage. Students can listen to it anywhere on their Walkmen, so the embarrassment of reading English textbooks on the train in front of foreigners and other students can be avoided and listening comprehension is still being practiced.

Both tapes can be tailored to your own class goals. If teaching a group of intermediate-level medical doctors or beginning-level junior high school students, you can determine what vocabulary and challenges would best suit their needs and record accordingly.

Many video-CD-cassette rental stores have a copying service where you can make 50 or so copies of a cassette. (Or you can spend a leisurely weekend with your own double-decker cassette recorder, if you want to spend the time and save some money.)

The students found the Challenge tape....well, challenging but compliance was nearly 100%. They were intrigued by this "new" approach to homework and that clicked an interest in the language itself.

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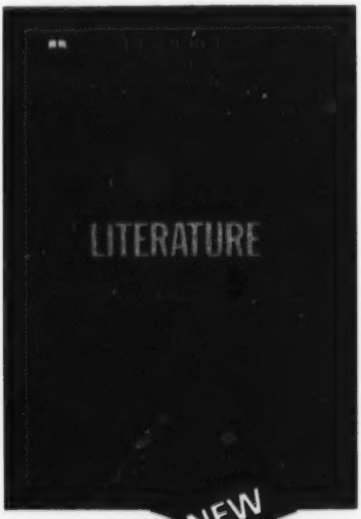

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The Forum

Content-based Language Teaching

Content-Based English Language Teaching: A Focus on Teacher Training

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Introduction

The practice of content-based language instruction has been growing steadily during the past ten years in the United States. Spurred by demographic changes in American schools that have led to increasing numbers of language minority students, educators have looked for innovative approaches to instruction. They have recognized that delaying academic instruction until the English language is fully mastered is detrimental to the eventual success of these students in the school system, where almost all classes are taught in English. Although students master social language skills in one to two years, academic language skills lag behind, often needing four to seven years of instruction (Cummins, 1981; Collier, 1989). To minimize the time gap between students acquiring proficiency in English and beginning instruction in content areas, many educators have started integrating language and content objectives in their lessons—even with beginning-level ESL (English as a Second Language) students.

When English is taught as a foreign language the dynamics for incorporating content is somewhat different. EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students are usually not dependent on learning English to complete their studies. In some cases English may be an elective course. In others, English may be required for graduation, yet the ability to communicate in English about content topics (e.g., endangered species, geometric patterns in architecture, urbanization) is not necessary. Nonetheless, EFL teachers have begun to implement content-based English language teaching (CELT) and its use is spreading in EFL programs worldwide. Widdowson's comments about English for specific purposes (ESP) also apply to the heightened interest in CELT:

> In ESP we are dealing with students for whom the learning of English is auxiliary to some other professional or academic purpose. It is clearly a means for achieving something else and is not an end in itself...This being so, ESP is (or ought logically to be) integrally linked with areas of activity (academic, vocational, professional) which have already been defined and which represent the learners' aspirations (Widdowson, 1983, pp. 108-9).

One reason teachers have turned to CELT is the desire to offer students meaningful and relevant material to round out their English lessons. With the advent of the communicative approach (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; Munby, 1978; Savignon, 1983) teachers have moved away from grammar-based syllabi. Students now have opportunities to discuss material of high interest and topicality that provides motivation to learn and participate in class. Students can practice using the language through more realistic scenarios, not through substitution drills or rote recitals of grammar-driven dialogues. With the communicative approach, students can personalize a conversation or a piece of writing. They can introduce a new thought or a different opinion. They can nego-

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tiate meaning, ask for clarification, practice paraphrasing. They are no longer restricted to carefully defined slots of language usage—exercises for discrete grammar points or tightly controlled writing prompts, such as responding to five questions to create a paragraph. Students are able to experiment with the language and to assume greater responsibility for their learning, a process highly recommended for adult learners and applicable to younger students as well.

The content-based language approach moves one step beyond the communicative approach and transforms English class into a forum for discussion and practice of topics addressed in other parts of the EFL students' courseload. Hence, the material presented in a CELT class is relevant and meaningful. This type of instruction offers extrinsic motivational value for EFL students. In places where English is not needed for everyday communication or even for most careers, an EFL class may not be highly regarded by many students, but merely tolerated. Once English instruction provides the occasion for review and practice of selected information from the content courses, its stature may be raised in the eyes of those less enthusiastic, non-intrinsically motivated EFL students and, as Widdowson has noted, may provide "contexts for classroom use that will activate the learners to learn" (1988, p. 7).

EFL teachers are also incorporating content-based language instruction in their lessons to promote critical thinking skills. Although the material presented in the English language class is drawn from the lectures and coursework presented in another language, the information must be discussed, summarized, analyzed and synthesized in English. As students shift their thought patterns from the language of the content course to English, they strengthen their higher-order cognitive skills. CELT instructors therefore have many opportunities for developing thinking skills because the lesson content provides fertile material. When a lesson is based on a science subject, for example:

> predicting, categorizing and inferencing are easily addressed in the warm-up and motivation phases of a lesson; observing, reporting and classifying, which can be done orally, in writing or pictorially, fit nicely into presentation and practice phases; and sequencing, summarizing and justifying are skills which suit application activities and lesson reviews (Short, 1991, p. 19).

Training programs

Although a few universities offer a course in content-based language instruction, and some others include it as a topic in a methods course, CELT is not yet a standard component of teacher education programs for TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language). In general, most EFL teachers receive specific training in this area *after* they have started teaching. Many of these teachers initially read about content-based instruction in professional journals or hear colleagues discuss it. Often training for these EFL teachers is informal, perhaps through several conference presentations—some of which may provide the rationale and theory behind the approach, while others may demonstrate instructional techniques and share sample lesson plans. In some situations, however, the professional development is more systematic. Workshops and continuing education courses are organized to include objectives, needs analyses, selected readings, scheduled topics, even practice teaching with observations and follow-up sessions.

Trainers who prepare CELT seminars or courses realize that, while ideally CELT training would be part of all EFL teachers' ongoing professional development, many teachers have only limited opportunities to participate in workshops. Trainers face several variables that may constrain the degree of training they can provide:

- the setting—site for the workshop, type of equipment, (e.g., overhead projectors, video recorders/players);
- the funding for the session(s)—paid by the teachers themselves, by their departments or schools, by outside sources (e.g., local businesses, national goverment);
- the type of trainees— their teaching situations, (e.g., secondary school, university, private language institute), their experience with EFL and/or CELT, flexibility of their schedules; and

- the availability of training materials and other resources.

Despite these variables, trainers should keep two important objectives in mind. First, the training programs should be designed to model what the trainers would like the teachers to do in the classroom. For example, if the session's goal is to train teachers to increase student participation in class (e.g., through cooperative learning, peer tutoring, and/or discovery learning), then the workshop should include activities for the participants to experience these strategies themselves.

A second objective should be to schedule regular follow-up sessions for evaluation, assessment and problem-solving. Even though many teachers will implement CELT lessons in their classes after just a few workshop sessions, they will still need guidance. Trainers are not able to anticipate all the possible situations teachers might encounter, so an opportunity for the teachers to give and receive feedback during the implementation process is essential. A coaching system, if feasible to set up within the school(s), can address this issue. Trainees can become peer coaches, observing one another, meeting for discussions, brainstorming solutions for problems. At subsequent training sessions, the trainer can "debrief" the teachers and coaches and offer additional suggestions. It is important, as Williams (1989) has pointed out, to use these observations and follow-up sessions as opportunities for teachers to grow professionally and to develop their own ability for self-assessment. Alternatively, dialogue journals may be used. The teacher trainees may act as the "students" and reflect on their experiences using CELT as they try to adapt newly-learned strategies and techniques to the abilities, interests and needs of their students. The trainer can periodically respond to the journals with encouragement, recommendations, and possibly clarification of strategies discussed in a workshop.

Training teachers in CELT

The rest of this article presents a sample agenda for an introductory workshop designed to train EFL teachers working in secondary or university settings. The agenda is derived from training workshops conducted by staff of the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC. The individual components that comprise it are suitable for expanded treatment as a more extensive training program. It is assumed that these trainees are former or current EFL teachers with basic knowledge of second language acquisition theory, language teaching methodology, linguistics, etc.

I. Introduction to CELT

II. The language of content
  Mathematics, science and social studies registers

III. The role of the language teacher
  The role of the learner

IV Planning for CELT
  Teacher collaboration
  Content selection

V. Strategies and techniques
  Pre-instructional–motivating and eliciting background knowledge
  Adapting ESL/EFL techniques
  Thinking skills development

VI. Materials
  Authentic materials
  Adaptations

VII. Assessment
  Portfolios and journals
  Performance-based techniques

I. Introduction

When training teachers to implement CELT, it is important not only to pique their interest in the approach but also to provide them with a rationale for applying CELT in their classroom. The introductory topic on the agenda attempts to do this. In this session, participants meet in small groups to share their perceptions and experiences with CELT. Then the whole group holds an open discussion to generate a definition of CELT. Finally the trainees are asked to respond to a common query by students, "Why are we doing this?" and to write three reasons for using CELT. These reasons are shared in small groups and three or four of the most persuasive/informative are recorded on a group list.

II. The language of content

For the second topic, the trainer must make some advanced preparation: selecting text

passages from math, science and/or social studies readings, according to the subjects chosen by the trainees, if known. During this session, the small groups analyze these passages to determine possible linguistic difficulties (semantics, syntax, coherence, etc.) and author expectations of background and cultural knowledge. This activity helps prepare the teachers for the type of academic language they will encounter in materials they might use in CELT lessons and sensitizes them to the need for pre-teaching vocabulary and background/cultural information.

III. Teacher and learner roles

In all CELT training programs the role of the language teacher must be discussed to emphasize that the primary objective is to develop language proficiency, not content mastery. The trainees must recognize that the CELT teacher still teaches language, but the language taught will not follow a traditional grammar-based syllabus. For example, several discrete grammar points (e.g., tag questions) may be addressed only briefly, and standard writing formats (e.g., narrative essays and dialogues), may be replaced with note-taking and research reporting. With respect to lexical terms, the CELT teacher has a very important task: to teach the students the important technical and subject-specific vocabulary of the content area. Besides defining new technical vocabulary, the teacher must also be careful with terms that have multiple meanings. Students may know definitions for *power* and *root*, but they differ from those used in algebraic expressions. To teach such vocabulary effectively, the CELT teacher may need to rely upon colleagues and students for definitions and interpretations.

To shift the focus from the role of language teacher to that of learner, the trainer may wish to have the participants list five ways they think their instruction practices will change when they start using CELT lessons and five ways they think the students' behavior will change. At a future workshop this list can be reviewed and the changes experienced can be compared with the predictions.

Trainees will intuit that for most EFL learners content-based English instruction will be a new approach to language learning. As such, they may want to discuss "training" the learner. Fortunately, for teachers accustomed to the communicative approach, enouraging the students to take more responsibility for their learning will not be a new process. The difference with CELT is that teachers must both provide a rationale for the learners and promote their role as informants. Regarding the rationale, the trainees can refer to their group's list of reasons for "doing" CELT, generated in the first session of the training. Regarding the learners' role, CELT teachers must spend time helping the students become discussion leaders, peer teachers, and even assessors, because while teachers remain the final arbiter for language questions, they usually depend upon the students to correct one another if substantive errors in content have been made.

IV. Planning

Planning to implement CELT involves several important issues. The first is to establish effective collaboration between language and content educators. The second is to select the specific content to teach. To begin this session of the training, trainees are asked to consider their current or future teaching situations and list one content colleague they would like to collaborate with and why. The trainer can then use the trainees' responses as a springboard for discussion and explain that a successful CELT teacher has at least one or two content colleagues who are aware of the objectives of CELT and who work with the language teacher to prepare lessons that reflect the information taught in the content class or classes.

The trainer should acknowledge that such collaboration may take time and suggest that trainees approach it in three stages. First, a language teacher may initiate CELT in a vacuum, with little administrative support or resources for teacher training and materials development. This language teacher must spark excitement and persuade others of the positive impact that content-based language instruction can have on the students' abilities. Once the language teacher has implemented CELT and established a cooperative relationship with a content colleague or two, the interest may spread to several other teachers in a school. They may seek to pair up with another language teacher, if available, or arrange with the current CELT teacher to integrate their subject

area at a future date, perhaps during another semester or school year. Finally, the success of the approach may attract the attention of curriculum supervisors and other administrators who wish to implement the approach more widely. They, in turn, may plan professional development workshops and contact other resources from the public and private sectors for teacher training, or materials development or acquisition.

The trainer may also point out that when a school or system commits to the CELT approach, language teachers may work with colleagues from all subject areas. In some university settings, for example, English plays a pivotal role in the objectives of other departments. Carney (1990, pp. 7-9) explains that English professors in a French business school work closely with content professors, especially when setting up required "content" projects, internships, and studios. Students need English to pass required exams and phases of their university education (their "stage linguistique"). Major group research projects require an abstract written in English (with the report itself written in French) for the content professor and include an oral discussion of the project in English for the language teacher. Language teachers also help students prepare for internships available in English-speaking countries.

Identifying the specific content to teach is a second planning issue. Often teachers worry that they need extensive knowledge of the content area. The trainer can relieve some of this anxiety by explaining that CELT does not function to provide background knowledge on a new topic that will be covered in a content course. Rather, its purpose is primarily to reinforce, analyze and synthesize information already learned—in other words, to transform knowledge learned in one language into a communicative and practical form in another. In most non-English-speaking countries, English proficiency often becomes the means to an end, such as enhancing business opportunities or extracting information from English texts, instead of an intellectual pursuit. Therefore the ability to apply English skills in different content settings is desirable, and teachers should plan activities that develop students' skills in various uses of English. Such activities may be as various as requesting information over the telephone, writing a business letter to an international corporation, clarifying procedural details with employees, or persuading clients.

In selecting content topics, it may be helpful for the language teacher to poll the students. A needs assessment, for example, may enable the teacher to learn how the students themselves envision using English outside the academic setting. The students' choice, however, may not always be a realistic subject for the teacher. The teacher may know nothing about the topic (e.g., theoretical physics) nor have access to much material (e.g., journal articles, English language textbooks) on the subject. Or, the content teacher of that subject may not have the time or inclination to work with the language teacher. In such instances, the language teacher would be less able to prepare lessons that complement the content course. Nonetheless, these obstacles need not preclude teaching the topic if the students and teacher are motivated and interested.

Once the content topic is chosen, teachers must obtain appropriate instructional information. One option is is to consult either colleagues who teach the subject or students in the course(s). Another is to examine textbooks and observe content classes. To encourage trainees to seek information by reviewing textbooks and observing classes, a workshop activity may be set up for participants to examine and evaluate some representative textbooks and videoclips of classroom scenes. In practice, the trainer may suggest teachers examine content area textbooks before the language course begins, preferably in the summer or at a semester break. This lead time allows the language teacher to digest at least some of the information and seek clarification on specific points. Further, the teacher can then plan the language lessons around the content in advance—being sure to arrange the language objectives in a systematic and pedagogically sound manner. Advance observation of content classes is equally desirable for CELT teachers. By watching a colleague and students interact in a content course, a language teacher can learn much about the depth and breadth of material covered as well as the correspondence between the textbook information and the content teacher's lessons.

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V. Strategies and techniques

In the fifth part of the workshop, several strategies and techniques that have been effective in CELT classes are presented. Cooperative learning, process writing, peer tutoring and inquiry learning are successful strategies to discuss. Volunteers are also asked to try out some activities which may be modifications of traditional ESL techniques such as semantic webbing, use of realia, demonstrations, hands-on tasks, role plays and dialogue journals. Sentence strips, for example, may be designed for math equations or a chain of chemical reactions. Jazz chants may be written with content themes. Questionnaires and interviews may be planned around environmental awareness or governmental policies. Participants are then invited to share techniques they have used. (For more information on content-based language strategies, see Brinton et al., 1989; Cantoni-Harvey, 1987; Chamot & O'Malley, 1986; Crandall, 1987; Mohan, 1986; Short, 1991; and Snow et al., 1989.)

VI. Materials

The sixth topic focuses on materials acquisition and development. It begins with a discussion of locating and retrieving authentic materials and primary sources. Because one goal of CELT is to enable students to use source documents, language teachers want to incorporate such material into their classes. These materials need not all be printed matter; radio broadcasts, videos and films, and even artwork are appropriate. Indeed, use of multimedia is recommended not only for the development of different language skills, such as listening and reading, but also for accommodating different student learning styles (e.g., visual or aural).

Teachers-in-training should realize that the availability and procurement of authentic materials varies dramatically with the EFL setting. Many schools are located in areas where English-speaking radio programs are broadcast; fewer where English-speaking television programs are. Some schools have ready access to English language books, films, newspapers and magazines; others do not. Some are in towns with local businesses that have English-speaking employees or that deal with English-speaking companies. These local businesses might send guest speakers to the school or share correspondence (e.g., memoranda, business letters) and technical manuals written in English. Some language teachers request materials from embassies and cultural centers of English-speaking countries. Some countries, such as the United States, have nonprofit organizations and/or service groups that send old textbooks abroad upon request. Clearly, there are several options for authentic materials, but not all may lead to the topical information desired, especially if the topic is highly specific. There is a caveat with these materials however: They must be screened for cultural sensitivity and informational accuracy.

Many teachers incorporate authentic materials when possible, but usually supplement their classes with adapted materials. The trainer explains that such an adaptation does not need to be a translation. Often, a language teacher will simply extract the information needed to meet the objective of the lesson. In this part of the workshop, trainees learn to use the textbooks, worksheets, etc. from the content course (supplied by colleagues or students) and adapt the information into English. They are shown techniques for adapting materials and asked to prepare a sample adaptation that depicts the given information visually through such means as charts, graphs, pictures, timelines, diagrams, and maps. For instance, one teacher may develop a diagram or flow chart in English of the information contained in a biology text dealing with the water cycle. After sharing their adaptations, the teachers are encouraged to describe a lesson that uses the material. In the example above, the teacher may use the adaptation for a class discussion on sources of water, or for a hands-on experiment to build an enclosed terrarium that demonstrates the water cycle, or for a writing project to describe the cause and effect of a regional drought. (For more information on adapting materials, see Brinton et al., 1989; and Short, 1989).

Another alternative for teachers to consider is enlisting their students as materials developers. Small student groups or pairs could be assigned the task of writing an essay or designing a map or graph or timeline on a particular topic to be used in classes in subsequent years or semesters. Students may also be asked to

collect materials they come across outside school that are written in English and applicable to the topics studied in the CELT class. [Clarke (1989) provides other suggestions a trainer may share with the teachers.]

VII. Assessment

During this session, the trainer and trainees discuss assessment techniques for measuring students' language development through CELT. Since there are no standardized tests for CELT, this component focuses on teacher-designed measures such as cloze passages, oral reports, story (or experiment) summaries, and alternative assessments such as portfolios, journal writings, reading logs and performance-based activities. The trainees need not worry about assessing the content comprehension of their students, only the language development.

Conclusion

This article has sought to contribute to the current dialogue on teacher training in CELT by outlining some few suggestions for training topics along with considerations for planning and implementation. As CELT's popularity grows in the EFL field and as teacher training programs become prevalent; it will be useful to determine what topics are commonly addressed and what approachs to training teachers are taken. Identification of the common features will be useful in designing a CELT training program that may be offered as part of a teacher's preservice education.

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Content-Based Language Testing

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Because testing should always be responsive to curriculum, any discussion of content-based language testing should logically start with a definition for content-based language instruction. According to Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989) content-based instruction is

> ...the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims. More specifically, since we are dealing primarily with postsecondary education, it refers to the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills. (p. 2)

Given that definition, it is important to note that very little has been written about the development of content-based language tests.

According to Brinton et al (1989), one difficult problem in developing content-based language tests is deciding what content to test. In their words,

> A primary issue in any course is what to evaluate, since this will largely determine how students view their learning objectives. Content-based instruction, in which both language development and subject matter learning are central, raises special problems. (p. 181)

Essentially, the issue is whether a given test should focus on the language skills involved in the content area, or focus on the content knowledge itself, or both.

The content subject matter cannot be avoided because: 1) learning the content is one of the objectives of the content-based approach; 2) the content of lectures, texts, etc., define the vocabulary and language structures that the students need to learn; 3) the content defines the domains of knowledge and language being tested; 4) language learning objectives are by definition performance-based within the parameters of the content area being tested; and 5) the item types that can appropriately be used are limited to those suitable for the content area involved. Obviously then, content selection is a very important consideration in developing content-based tests.

At the same time that the content subject matter cannot be avoided, it can never be tested without considering the language skills involved. There are several reasons for this dependency: 1) testing of content is necessarily done through language; 2) degree of access to the language of the content area will at least partially determine how well it can be learned; and 3) the content knowledge will always be inseparable (to some degree) from the language skills involved—at least from a test score perspective.

Brinton et al (1989) suggest that content materials may be used appropriately in two ways: to assess content knowledge and to assess language skills "with differences only in the scoring criteria" (p. 183). In other words, they are suggesting that content-based language tests can be designed to measure both content and language knowledge. To put this issue another way, Mohan (1986) points out that those designing tests must be aware of "the content factor in language tests and of the language factor in content tests" (p. 134).

Brinton et al suggest five broad categories of language knowledge that can be tested:

1) knowledge of elements of the linguistic code
2) knowledge of discourse
3) interactive communication skills
4) academic language use skills
5) related study skills

They further suggest three purposes for evaluation in content-based settings (evaluation of general language proficiency, diagnostic assessment, and evaluation of achievement). The remainder of their chapter on assessment briefly describes six considerations

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that are common to all tests (feasibility, validity, appropriateness, reliability, variety, and frequency), suggests different modes in which testing might be accomplished in a content-based course (teacher assessment, self-assessment, and peer-assessment), and gives sample testing schemes to further illustrate their points.

In short, Brinton et al provide a good starting point for thinking about the place of tests in a content-based second language curriculum. However, more work needs to be done on the processes involved in actually putting together tests in this new content-based context. To meet this need, my article will focus on the mechanics of creating a content-based test and putting it into practice. The discussion will then turn to the relative importance in content-based tests of assessing content knowledge (or comprehension) as opposed to assessing the requisite language skills for success in the content area.

STEPS INVOLVED IN DEVELOPING CONTENT-BASED LANGUAGE TESTS

The steps necessary in developing a content-based language test should include at least the following (assuming that the test developer is an applied linguist or ESL specialist):

Step 1: Identify content area specialist(s) to help with the development of content specific test items
Step 2: Decide (with the content specialist) on the material which will serve as the basis for the test
Step 3: Decide on the appropriate item formats to be used in the test
Step 4: Decide on the specific content objectives and language skills to be tested
Step 5: Write test items that will assess the specific content objectives and language skills
Step 6: Pilot and revise the test items
Step 7: Administer the test in a live situation, and check its reliability and validity.

I will use as an example of these processes a project at UCLA in which I was involved.

The overall purpose of the project at UCLA was the development of tests for general proficiency at the graduate level in the engineering content area. Tests were developed for overall proficiency in both academic reading and lecture listening at the graduate level in the specific content area of engineering. In other words, while the tests were not directly related to any specific content-based language course, they were designed to assess prospective graduate students' overall proficiency in the language of engineering lectures and texts. The remaining discussion in this section will be organized around the test development steps listed above with appropriate headings for each.

Identifying Content Area Specialists

In designing our tests, we started by identifying and contacting engineering professors who might be interested in helping with our project. Three such professors were identified, and teams of two test writers (one for the reading test and one for lecture listening) were put into contact with each professor for a total of six test writers.

In their discussions, the language specialists were instructed to obtain three types of information from the engineering professors: 1) what types of materials would be most appropriate for testing the engineering content area in reading and lecture listening; 2) what general item formats would be most suitable for designing tests of the content area; 3) what specific types of questions would be proper for testing engineering knowledge and language skills.

Deciding on the Content Area Material

The decisions about the material to be used as the basis of the engineering lecture-listening tests were fairly straightforward. The language specialist test writers and the engineering professors had no difficulty deciding on the use of videotaped lectures for the lecture-listening tests. However, there was considerable discussion about the difficulty level of material that would be appropriate. Ultimately, it was decided to tape a number of hours of lectures from junior-year engineering core courses. These courses were felt to be beyond the introductory level typical of lower-division courses, yet they were common upper-division courses that most graduate-level engineering students would have taken. In other words, the courses were not so simple that anyone could understand them, nor were they so specialized that only an engineer within a

particular sub-specialization would be abl[e] to comprehend what was going on.

There was also considerable discus[sion] about whether the material should be selected from portions of the lectures that were rich in language, i.e., relatively free of formulas and other diagrams written on the blackboard, or should include such visual material. We decided in consensus with the engineering professors that we would select material that would be suitable for the test rather than material that was simply typical of engineering lectures. In other words, we decided to avoid formulas and diagrams in selecting our videotaped material for the three lecture-listening tests.

Once we had decided on junior-year core-course lectures for the lecture-listening tests, it seemed sensible to measure similar material for the reading tests as well. Thus the textbooks for the same core courses were examined and three reading passages were selected (one each from separate books). Like the lectures, passages were selected that were free of formulas and diagrams. These passages then served as the basis for three reading tests.

Deciding on the Item Formats

The next step was to decide on the formats for the items that we would use in our tests. In consultation with the engineering professors, it quickly became evident that most of the tests in actual engineering courses were of the short-answer or problem-solving formats. Since we were developing proficiency tests that would be given under controlled and timed conditions and since it had to be possible for language teachers to score the tests, we agreed on multiple-choice items as at least a "genuine" (after Widdowson, 1978) type of item even though they could not possibly be considered "authentic" in the sense that Widdowson used that term. In retrospect, it seems to me that the use of multiple-choice items in our tests was one of the major weaknesses of our project. However, at the time, we felt that it could not be helped.

Based on that experience, I would recommend that anyone developing content-based tests consider a wide range of nontraditional types of procedures—especially if such procedures are ones that would typically be used in actually testing the content area. As suggested by Short (page 171, this volume), informal assessments like portfolios, journal writing, and performance-based activities might be appropriate in certain content-based language settings. But any number of other more formal possibilities exist, from true-false, matching, and multiple-choice to fill-in, and short-answer questions. Performance-based activities like following directions, problem solving, descriptive or process essay writing, role-plays, structured interviews, panel discussions, debates, and classroom presentations, should all be considered as well. The only test types that should not be considered are those which have little or nothing to do with the procedures that would be used in the content area itself.

Deciding on the Content and Language Objectives

Much deliberation among the engineering professors and the language specialists occured while developing objectives for the lecture-listening and reading tests (see Brown 1981 for fuller description of the process). The result was a decision to use the following categories of item types in all of our tests:

A. Language skills
   1. Cohesion (after Halliday and Hasan, 1976)
      a. Reference
      b. Substitution
      c. Ellipsis
      d. Lexical cohesion
      e. Conjunction
   2. Vocabulary (non-technical)

B. Engineering content
   1. Facts
   2. Inference
   3. Vocabulary (after Cowan, 1974; Inman, 1978)
      a. Subtechnical
      b. Technical
   4. Scientific rhetorical functions (Lackstrom et al, 1973; Selinker et al, 1976)

Notice that the items were divided into language skills and engineering content. These major categories were then further subdivided into categories that were based on the current language teaching literature at the time, as well as on the advice of the engineering professors.

Writing Test Items

To develop the engineering lecture-listening tests, a number of hours of lectures were video taped. The tapes were based on lectures delivered by the cooperating engineering professors in their classrooms. Three segments (eight to twelve minutes in length) were selected and analyzed to isolate those aspects best suited to develop the different items listed in the previous section. Next thirty-five to fifty items were written for each lecture segment. Three to five items were written for each of the categories of items described in the previous section. Every item was reviewed by the engineering professors as well as by all of the language specialists. Directions were provided so that the students would know what was required of them, and the tests were assembled.

To develop the engineering reading tests, three 600-800 word passages were selected from junior-year engineering course text books. Three to five items were written for each of the item categories described in the previous section. Items were further reviewed for adequacy of format, directions were written, and the tests were assembled. The topics for the three reading passages were as follow: the mechanics of deformable bodies, refractories, and thermodynamic analysis of heat pumps. These were topics that all three professors said were not beginning-level engineering topics but would be common to most graduate engineering students.

It is important to note that the engineering professors were indispensable at this stage of the test development. They helped not only in generating engineering items, but also by creating some of the language skill items. They were also very helpful in proofreading all types of items.

Piloting and Revising Items

The teams of writers then pilot tested the items that they had devleoped. In the case of the lecture listening tests, the examinees watched and listened to lectures, took notes, and then answered the questions. For the reading tests, they read the passages and answered the questions. They were allowed to refer back to the passages as needed.

Samples of twenty to thirty graduate students took the tests in groups representative of all possible combinations of the following categories: native-speakers and nonnatives, who were either engineering majors or non-engineering majors. The results were examined for internal consistency, reliability, item difficulty, and item discrimination. Then the validity of the tests was evaluated using the differential groups strategy (see Erickson & Molloy, 1983 for an example of the research of one pair).

On the basis of these results, new, shorter tests were created. For instance, for the reading tests, this revision process involved analyzing the item statistics for the fifty questions of each passage, then selecting those items which best served the purposes of an overall engineering reading proficiency test (in terms of item difficulty and discrimination). Then the most efficient twenty items from each passage were retyped and the three passages were combined into a single test that had three passages with twenty questions each for a total of sixty questions.

Administering and Validating the Final Version of the Test

Brown (1984 & 1988) reports on the results of the administration of the final version of the reading test discussed above. The test appeared to work very well in terms of reliability and validity. In addition, it was possible to maintain balanced proportions in the tests of all of the language skills and engineering content item categories listed earlier.

THE BALANCE BETWEEN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE SKILLS

As mentioned above, testing a content area is clearly dependent to some degree on language skills. However, in content-based language courses, "it is possible to make content evaluation fairer by adjusting language demands" (p. 183). Brinton et al suggest the following three ways of adjusting the language factor in content evaluation: 1) give "more frequent, briefer, and less verbally demanding assignments" (p. 184); 2) allow students the option of taking the test in their first or second language; 3) "base student evaluation on a variety of tasks rather than on just one type" (pp. 184-85).

Brown (1984) revealed that language is indeed an important factor in content-based tests. Indeed, in that study, engineers outperformed non-engineers on the same Engineer-

ing English Reading Test discussed above, and natives outperformed nonnatives by a considerable margin. Interestingly enough, native non-engineers outperformed nonnative engineers, which suggested that knowledge of the language was more important than knowledge of the content area. Indeed, further analysis showed that forty-nine percent of the variance in scores on the sixty-item Engineering English Reading Test was due to language ability (as indicated by variance among native speakers and nonnatives) and only twelve percent was due to knowledge of the content area (as indicated by variance among engineers and non-engineers). These results tentatively suggest that language is a more important factor, at least in content-based tests of overall proficiency, than is content knowledge.

Brown (1988) also indicated that similar patterns of performance for natives and nonnatives, engineers and non-engineers were not only true for average scores but also for each and every category of items on the test. In other words, the native engineers, native non-engineers, nonnative engineers, and nonnative non-engineers not only performed on average in descending order of magnitude on each test, but also on each and every type of item—whether a language oriented item or an engineering content item.

Hudson (1991) further supports the notion that language is an important facet of content-based tests. He indicates that reading for content can improve not only reading comprehension but also knowledge of reading grammar and general reading ability. Thus it seems that Brinton et al (1989) were right to be concerned that the balance between content knowledge and language skills be maintained in content-based tests. Indeed, the research above seems to indicate that language skills are more important than content knowledge for success on such content-based tests. This last observation should not only shape our concepts of content-based testing but also might usefully serve as a partial justification for the use of content-based language instruction, where "the integration of particular content with language-teaching aims" (Brinton et al, 1989) is essential if the students are ever to have access to the content knowledge that they seek.

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Language and Content Learning K through 12: The Vancouver School Board Project

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There are now large numbers of English as a second language (ESL) students in North American schools. In Vancouver, British Columbia, for example, English is not the mother tongue for almost fifty percent of the student population. A major educational issue concerning these children is their development of the language and cognitive skills necessary for academic achievement. There is recent evidence that proficiency in English for academic purposes may take as long as four to eight years during which time subject area achievement may be considerably depressed (Collier, 1987). Informed by such findings, educational policy, in many school districts, has now begun to recognize that language classes are not sufficient provision for children who must gain their education through the medium of English. Thus, there is a growing trend to teach language and content knowledge simultaneously. However, as Wong Fillmore (1989) points out: "Like anything else in education, [language and content instruction] can be done well or done poorly" (p.125). Moreover, Swain (1988) has illustrated that teaching content without paying particular attention to language may not result in good language teaching, i.e., may not enhance second language learning. What is needed, it seems, is a systemic approach to the integration of language and content instruction. This article reports on a project concerned with just such an approach. It briefly explains how the theoretical framework of "knowledge structures" (Mohan, 1986) guided the systematic integration of language and content learning in The Vancouver School Board Language and Content Project. As well, it reports on a sample of studies of student learning arising from these ideas.

The Knowledge Framework

Influenced by the ideas of the anthropologist Malinowski (1935) and working within the systemic functional model of language (Halliday 1978, 1985), Mohan (1986) has proposed a theoretical model to integrate language and content instruction. Mohan bases his conceptual framework on the "context of situation" (activity, task). He proposes that we consider social practices (activities, situations, tasks) through the "knowledge structures" that shape and inform them.

Knowledge structures are schemata or patterns of organization of knowledge. They are thought to account for how people organize their knowledge of the world so as to understand and retain information (Galambos et al., 1986). There is some evidence to suggest that certain abstract logical knowledge structures (e.g., classification or decisions) occur across cultures (Werner & Schoepfle, 1987). Within his framework, Mohan (1986) proposes three pairs of related structures: A description of a particular object or person often involves a classification or set of general concepts; A particular temporal sequence of states, events or actions often involves general principles (social rules or cause-effect relations) which relate one state to another; A particular choice or decision often involves general values. When Early et al.(1986) examined B.C. Ministry of Education curricula with these six knowledge structures in mind, they found these structures recurred as texts, tasks and thinking skills to be developed. Table 1 shows how these curriculum objectives fall into the categories of Mohan's framework.

In addition, according to Mohan each of these knowledge structures has unique semantic linguistic features which set it apart structurally from the others. In this way, knowledge structures underlie spoken or written genre or text structure. He argues as well that each of these knowledge structures can be concretely represented by particular non-discursive semiotics. Table 1 lists some of the types of non-discursive semiotics (key visuals) which may be used to represent each structure.

These visuals have few (if any) linguistic

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Table 1: Knowledge Framework and Key Visuals.

Types of Knowledge Structure	Types of Thinking Skills	Types of Key Visuals
Description	Observe, identify, label, locate, describe, compare, contrast	Picture/slide, diagram, map, plans/drawing, table
Sequence	Arrange events in order, note changes over time, follow directions, note cycles and processes	Timeline, action strip flowchart cycle
Choice	Make decisions, select, propose alternative solutions, solve problems, form personal opinions	Decision tree, flow chart
Classification	Classify, define, understand, apply, develop concepts	Web, tree, table
Principles	Explain and predict: interpret data and draw conclusions: formulate, test, and establish hypotheses: understand, apply causes, effects, means, ends, rules	Line graphs, cycles, Venn diagram
Evaluation	Evaluate, rank, appreciate, judge, criticize	Grid, rating chart, table, mark book

demands and can help the learner understand the content, i.e., the concepts and how they are related. Classroom language work concerns itself with how these related concepts may be variously realized in context-sensitive discourse and grammar.

In summary, the framework acts as a tool to facilitate the systematic integration of language and content. Exploring a topic through the six categories of the framework provides a starting point for constructing student tasks which integrate the development of academic discourse and the development of subject area knowledge. The key visuals are useful as links between language and content.

The Research Project

In the Vancouver School District teams of teachers have been established in a number of elementary and secondary schools. Each team consists of ESL and mainstream teachers. These educators have participated in a series of related workshops the content of which includes: an understanding of Mohan's (1986) theoretical framework; the relationship between knowledge structures, discourse and graphics; the representation of knowledge structures in discoursal and graphic forms; the uses of graphics to develop background knowledge of a topic and the knowledge structures related to that topic; to help students organize and express their new understanding; and to support students in their reading and writing of academic discourse. As well, the workshops assisted the teachers in developing thematic units and instructional strategies for ESL students in both ESL and mainstream classrooms.

A recent series of qualitative and quantitative studies conducted in project schools suggests that using the framework to explicitly teach ESL students about knowledge structures and their realization in graphic and text forms facilitated their comprehension and production of academic discourse. The remainder of the article will briefly review some of these studies of student learning.

Study 1

Study 1 was a qualitative case study of classroom process and student writing in an extended thematic integrated language and content unit on the scientific topic of "Fish". Early (1990a) observed a teacher and her class of young ESL learners at work on the unit over a period of weeks. The students, who were mostly Punjabi speaking, ranged from grade four to six. They exhibited varying degrees of proficiency in English, but all needed additional language support to function successfully in age-appropriate content classes. The

CLASSIFICATION	PRINCIPLES	VALUES
Classifying fish as a part of life	What a fish needs to survive (food, habitat, etc.)	Criteria for a good pet
Describe physical features of a fish	Narrative. Steps in the life cycle of a fish	Would a fish be a good pet for you
DESCRIPTION	**SEQUENCE**	**CHOICE**

teacher designed a unit of work which organized the theme "Fish" around knowledge structures as shown in the figure above.

To convey these structures and content ideas to the students, the teacher used graphics. She also used the graphics to scaffold and support the students' expository discourse. Writing tasks related to each of the knowledge structures were assigned within the unit; and in all cases the children produced the expected knowledge structures. The findings of this study indicate that when young ESL students are adequately supported in tasks to elicit certain knowledge and discourse structures, they are able to produce (seemingly with no pain) fairly extended texts of which they can be proud.

Study 2

Tang (1989) conducted a two-part study to explore the role and value of graphic representations of knowledge structures in ESL students' learning. The first part was an ethnographic study of two classrooms of grade seven ESL students across a variety of subject areas. Findings revealed that students were exposed to considerable amount of graphics in texts and a variety of other instructional materials. However, whether and how students used the graphics in their learning of language or content was highly dependent on teacher guidance. For the most part, students perceived the use of graphics to be for decorative purposes. With explicit teacher guidance, however, students were found to be more likely to take advantage of graphic representations of knowledge structures to facilitate learning. Part 2 was a quasi-experimental study designed to discover the effects of graphic representations of knowledge structures on grade seven ESL students' comprehension of content knowledge and academic discourse. The quasi-experiment was based on a pre-test-post-test non-equivalent-control group design. A pre-test and post-test were administered on forty-five grade seven ESL students. The results were statistically significant and suggested that using a tree diagram representing a text passage of classification and using it as a content teaching strategy to present content knowledge to grade seven students, and to support the students' expository discourse of classification, facilitated comprehension and immediate recall of the text passage.

Study 3

This was a three part study conducted by a research team including Mohan, Tang and the author. The focus of the study was on secondary ESL students in content classrooms, and strategies that might facilitate the reading and writing demands around social studies and science textbooks currently used in schools in Vancouver (Early, 1990b). The purpose of this study was in each instance two-fold: 1) to assess the effects of instruction and practice on structural patterns of knowledge and their realization in text and graphics on high school ESL students' comprehension of social studies and science textbook materials; 2) to assess the effects of this instruction on the quality of ESL students' expository writing.

The study was based on a pre-test-post-test non-equivalent-control-group design. Each pre- and post-test was made up of two parts—a reading test and a writing test. Each of the reading/writing tests again consisted of two sections, one testing the knowledge structure of principles or cause-effect and the other testing the knowledge structure of classification.

The experiment was replicated in three situations with three different groups of students: grade eight social studies; grade eleven social studies; and advanced ESL science (grades eight through ten). In each situation instruments were developed directly from texts students had to deal with every day.

Treatment consisted of presenting social studies/science lessons using or adapting graphics related to the texts. The teachers helped bring text structures to the awareness of the students, using the graphic to highlight text structure. The teachers also facilitated students discussions of language items and logical connectors used to express principles and classification. Students were also given opportunities to practice writing from a graphic. No extra time or extra lessons were given to the experimental group. The same teacher gave identical social studies/science lessons to the control group. The teachers used their normal strategies which included explaining, questioning, story-telling and drama, but no graphic or explicit discussion of the academic discourse of principles and classification was given. Results of the study reveal that teaching the two knowledge structures—classification and principles—and their graphic representations facilitated, in varying degrees, the majority of secondary ESL students' comprehension and expression of similarly structured language and content in classroom social studies and science texts.

Comparing the mean scores of the post-tests with the pre-tests, it is clear that in all the tests administered, the experimental group in each of the three situations gained in performance in the post-tests over the pre-tests, in four of six writing post-tests, i.e., in the grade eleven socials and ESL science contexts the gain was statistically significant.

Conclusions

The findings from the studies described above are promising. They suggest that the approach we are taking to integrating language and content can help to increase ESL students' ability to understand content-area knowledge and to read and to write academic discourse. More studies need to be conducted, however, on these and other knowledge structures. As well, studies need to be conducted with ESL students at various ages and at various proficiency levels to determine more completely, the value of this approach to ESL students who must gain their education through the medium of English. Nevertheless, we are encouraged by our findings to date and are conducting ongoing research to gain a clearer understanding of the complex issue of systematically addressing learner's language and content learning needs.

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Sheltered Subject Matter Teaching

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Inspired by the success of Canadian immersion programs (see e.g. Lambert and Tucker, 1972), sheltered subject matter teaching (SSMT) derives from one important concept: Subject matter teaching in a second language, when it is comprehensible, is language teaching, because it provides comprehensible input.[1] A history class, given to second language acquirers, if it is comprehensible, is a language class.

There are several crucial characteristics of SSMT:

1. In SSMT, only second language acquirers are allowed in the class. When all students are second language acquirers, when all students are in the same linguistic boat, it is easier for the teacher to make the input comprehensible.

2. In Sheltered Subject Matter classes, the focus of the class is on subject matter, not language. This encourages a focus on meaning, not form, and results in more comprehensible input, and thus more language acquisition. Sheltered subject matter classes are thus not "ESL Math" or "ESL History" but are "math" and "history."

If possible, the tests and projects also focus on subject matter and not language. When the test is on subject matter, students will listen to lectures, participate in discussions, read the required and recommended texts, and obtain a great deal of comprehensible input. When the tests are on language, students will be tempted to conjugate verbs and memorize nouns, and little language acquisition will take place. Similarly, when projects and papers deal with subject matter, students will read extensively in the second language and will obtain comprehensible input.

3. In SSMT, teachers attempt to make input comprehensible. This is done in several ways, including frequent comprehension checking, which indicates to teachers when they need to adjust the input they are providing, and the use of extra-linguistic information (pictures, charts, realia, and occasional readings in the students' first language).

SSMT may be part of the solution to the "transition problem." There are several beginning language teaching methods that have been shown to be highly effective. Students in these comprehensible-input based methods typically outperform traditionally taught first year foreign language students on tests involving communication and do as well or better on discrete-point grammar tests (Asher, 1988; Bushman and Madsen, 1976; Voge, 1981; Hammond 1989; Nicola, 1990).

These methods, however, are limited in that they provide only "conversational" language. Second language students need more. It has been shown that conversational language does not make a large contribution to academic success among language minority students (Cummins, 1981; Saville-Troike, 1984). Conversational language is also not enough to allow the foreign language student to read the classics, engage in the serious study of literature, use the language for international business, or do advanced scholarship. Students need, in other words, the advanced vocabulary, grammar, and discourse structures necessary for truly sophisticated language use. SSMT is intended to help provide this competence.[2]

Research on SSMT

Research on SSMT has shown that students in these classes acquire considerable amounts of the second language, typically doing at least as well as students in regular language classes, and they also learn impressive amounts of subject matter. Thus, SSMT is very time-efficient; students get both language and subject matter knowledge at the same time.

We can divide the research into two categories:

1. *Second-Language Medium Studies*: Here, second language acquirers are tested on, and given course credit for subject matter learning.

2. *Content-Based Second Language Studies*: Here, subject matter is focused on, but students are not tested on subject matter. They get credit only for language. Some content-based classes have a grammar component, but when grammar is included, it is considered to be peripheral.

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Second-Language Medium Studies

The best known of the second language medium studies are the many reports of Canadian-style immersion (summarized in Lambert and Tucker, 1972; Swain and Lapkin, 1982). It has been shown repeatedly that children in these programs acquire impressive amounts of the second language, and learn a great deal of subject matter. In addition to the immersion studies, a number of research projects confirm that SSMT works for older students as well.

The Ottawa studies, (Edwards, Wesche, Krashen, Clement and Krudenier, 1985; and Hauptman, Wesche and Ready, 1988) showed that university students could learn both subject matter (psychology) and make progress in a second language at the same time. Participants, who were volunteers, had already studied one semester of college psychology in their first language (English or French), and had at least low intermediate knowledge of the second language (French or English). The sheltered course was second semester psychology (in Hauptman et. al. one experimental group did sheltered psychology for two semesters), and was supplemented by a half-hour weekly session with a language teacher, who did no direct grammar teaching, but focussed on comprehension of content and "developing strategies for effective reading and class interventions" (Hauptman et. al., p. 445).

In general, subjects made progress in second language acquisition equivalent to students in regular second language classes, and acquired subject matter just as well as students who took the same course in their first language.

Ho (1982a) (see also Ho, 1982b) reported that tenth graders in Hong Kong who had had second language medium instruction for three of their eight years of EFL were far more proficient in English than comparison students with eight years of traditional EFL. (The English medium students may have had more total exposure to English as well, however.) Ho also reported that second language medium students learned as much physics through English over a three month period as comparison students did in their first language.

In Ho (1985), eighth graders in Hong Kong who took courses in English learned as much subject matter as comparison students who took courses in their first language in four out of five courses. Second-language medium instruction did not appear to result in additional second language acquisition. Both experimental and comparison students in this study, however, did all subject matter reading in English, which reduced the treatment differences. (Swain, 1988, in discussing this study, also suggests that the fact that nonnative speakers taught the Second-Language Medium class may have been a factor, as well as the methodology used.)

Buch and de Bagheera (1978) found that ESL teachers who were not native speakers of English made significant gains on the Michigan Test and non-significant gains on a cloze test and writing test after taking eight applied linguistics courses in English. No comparison groups were used in this study for either language acquisition or content-knowledge learning.

Two studies (Saegart, Scott, Perkins, and Tucker, 1974; and Gradman and Hanania, 1991) found a significant relationship between years of subject matter instruction through a second language and second language proficiency among students of English as a foreign language. In both studies, years of subject matter instruction through English was a better predictor of English proficiency than was years of formal instruction in English.[3]

Content-based Second Language Teaching

Schleppegrell (1984) reported that EFL students made significant gains on an essay test and test of listening comprehension after a five week content-based economics course. No comparison groups were used. (These subjects outperformed a comparison group that did a sheltered economics course in which the emphasis was on output rather than input. Comparison subjects took the essay test only.)

Lafayette and Buscaglia (1985) reported that fourth semester university level students of French as a foreign language who studied French civilization and culture did just as well as a traditional fourth semester class on several measures of French proficiency (listening and reading), and made better gains on a speaking test. On a writing test, however, the comparison class was slightly better, gaining about 5 points (pre=169.3; post=174.54) as compared

to the experimental class' 3 point gain (pre=165.29; post=168.47). Lafayette and Buscaglia noted that the writing test was really a grammar test, with more than 20% of the items on the subjunctive. The comparison group focussed on grammar, with two units on the subjunctive, while the sheltered classes relied exclusively on acquisition. Since it is quite likely that the French subjunctive is late-acquired (for evidence from Spanish, see Stokes, 1988; Stokes and Krashen, 1990), it is no surprise that the sheltered class did not do quite as well on this test.

A very impressive finding is that more of the sheltered students intended to enroll in additional French courses, and more students in this class reported that their interest in studying French had increased as a result of taking the course.

Peck (1987). Students of Spanish as a foreign language (second-semester college level) made significant gains on an oral test and a listening comprehension test after taking a seven week course on social work, which included some direct grammar instruction. There was no comparison group.

Sternfeld (1989). This study is unique because it involved beginning foreign language students. First-year college Spanish students who studied Latin-American history, geography and culture did as well as traditionally taught students on tests of reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Comparison students did better on a writing sample, however. Sternfeld noted that this may have been due to the fact that the topic of the writing test was familiar to the comparison students, but was not included in the sheltered class.

Milk (1990) provided content-based second language teaching as part of a teacher training program to 17 bilingual and ESL teachers at the University of Texas at San Antonio. Students participated in one of two summer sessions, held for two hours per day for five weeks (42 contact hours). Students read and heard mini-lectures on second language acquisition theory, designed classroom activities in groups, and kept dialogue journals in Spanish. Participants varied considerably in initial Spanish competence, but significant group gains were found on a variety of language tests. No comparison group was used.

The Adjunct Model

SSMT is not the only possible way of teaching language using content. The only alternative that has, to my knowledge, been empirically tested is the "adjunct model," in which students enroll in regular classes with native speakers, but also participate in an additional language class "linked" to the regular class.

In the Hauptman, Wesche and Ready (1988) study cited in the text, one group of ESL students (1984-85 cohort) did not do sheltered psychology but were enrolled in the adjunct model, taking regular psychology with native speakers of English and also a supplementary class for one and a half hours per week. The adjunct class included "supplementary assignments, including readings related to the course topics, written summaries and critiques of the readings, and oral presentations ..." (p. 446). Adjunct model students did well, making gains in English that were greater ($p<.09$) than gains made by comparison students enrolled in ESL classes. (Recall that sheltered students in the Ottawa studies also had a supplementary class, but only for a half-hour per week. Adjunct students received a separate grade for the extra class, but sheltered students did not.)

Snow and Brinton (1988) reported on twelve university ESL students who attended adjunct classes for 12 to 14 hours per week that were linked to one of several regular classes (psychology, political science, history, geography, computer science), which they attended for eight hours per week. The adjunct classes focussed on "essential modes of academic writing, academic reading, study skills development, and the treatment of persistent structural errors" (p. 557). In addition, students had tutorial and counseling services. The program lasted for seven weeks (summer session). Adjunct students did as well as comparison students enrolled in regular ESL classes in the fall on a simulated academic task (answering objective questions and writing an essay after hearing a brief lecture and reading a short text). Since the comparison group had higher scores on a test of English language proficiency, Snow and Brinton concluded that the adjunct class had had a beneficial effect.

Thus, both studies of the adjunct model yielded positive results. From these studies

alone, however, it cannot be determined which factors of the adjunct model were helpful, especially since the adjunct classes in the two studies were somewhat different.

Objections to SSMT

Swain (1988) maintains that "not all content teaching is necessarily good language teaching" (p. 68). In content-teaching in a second language, according to Swain: 1) students do not produce enough output, and do not produce enough complex output. More demands for output, according to Swain, will "help learners focus their attention on particular form-function relationships" (p. 73); 2) there is little correction; 3) the input is "functionally restricted," that is, "certain uses of language may simply not naturally occur, or may occur fairly infrequently in the classroom setting" (p. 74).

I have argued (Krashen, 1991) that points (1) and (2) are not a problem, since language acquisition does not require output or error correction. In fact, Swain's findings showing that sixth grade immersion students get little correction and produce only modest amounts of language are excellent arguments that output and correction are not necessary, since these children have clearly made excellent progress despite having so little output and correction. (This is not, of course, to say that output is bad for language acquisition. I have argued in several places, e.g. Krashen, 1982, 1985a, that output helps indirectly, by inviting comprehensible input, as well as affectively.)

There are two possible solutions for the third problem Swain mentions, restricted input. One possibility is to "contrive contexts," deliberately introduce contexts that ensure the use of certain forms. This is difficult to do, since it requires knowing what rules students are ready to acquire ("i+l").

A second possibility is simply to expand activities and the range of topics and subjects covered, which will naturally include more functions and forms (Swain, p. 77). This solution is easier and is more interesting for teachers and students. I will have some specific suggestions below.

New Directions in SSMT

SSMT has been successfully applied to much of the elementary school curriculum (Swain and Lapkin, 1982), and, as we have seen, to subject matter at the university level. Students have learned psychology (Edwards et al, 1985; Hauptman et al, 1988), culture and civilization (Sternfeld, 1989; Lafayette and Buscaglia, 1985), economics (Schleppegrell, 1984), social work (Peck) and applied linguistics (Buch and de Bagheera, 1978; Milk, 1990) in SSMT.

I have discussed some other possibilities for sheltered courses for foreign and second language students elsewhere (Krashen, 1982, 1985a). These courses would probably provide much of the variety of input that Swain maintains is currently lacking from many content-based courses.

Two of the most promising areas for sheltered classes that would be usable for all levels are courses in popular literature and the use of games. Popular literature and games promise to provide a wide variety of input, using activities that students find not merely interesting but often compelling.

Popular Literature

Including a sheltered popular literature class may be a good way to combine pleasure reading and sheltered subject matter instruction, two very effective means of moving beyond conversational language.

There is very strong evidence that pleasure reading is a major source of our advanced linguistic competence (see e.g. Krashen, 1985b, 1989a). In fact, there is evidence suggesting that merely making some popular literature available has a positive effect on literacy development (Rucker, 1982).

The goal of a popular literature class is to introduce students to many kinds of popular literature, so that eventually students will read on their own. This includes comic books (for a review of the research, see Krashen, 1989b), magazines, newspapers, and popular novels.

Such a class will also give students a considerable amount of information about the everyday culture of the speakers of the target language, as well as linguistic competence.

Games

Several kinds of games might be very effective at the intermediate level. Straight-forward board games promote interaction, and have the potential of supplying some subject matter knowledge: *Britannia* (Avalon Hill Game Co.), for example, takes place in Britain in the first century. While playing, participants inevitably learn a great deal of history.

The fullest potential of games is reached in what are termed "role-playing games," extremely complex games which require demanding solitary reading for character creation, and extensive group interaction in playing the actual game. The best known of the role-playing games is *Dungeons and Dragons*, but many variants exist, including some that set their adventures in actual historical locations, such as the *China* and *Vikings* modules from the GURP (Generic Universal Role Playing) system. Playing these games should result in significant subject matter learning as well as language acquisition.

While there has been no evaluation of the value of role-playing games in language acquisition, it is a safe bet that they will be effective. Role-playing games provide input through reading, as well as input through interaction, and research suggests that interaction is extremely helpful in making input comprehensible (e.g. Pica, Young, and Doughty, 1987). In addition, Rhoda McGraw and Sian Howells have been offering role-playing games as part of advanced English as a Foreign Language at the *École Nationale des Pont et Chassées* in Paris, with great apparent success.

An obvious problem with games, as with all interaction activities, is that students hear primarily the speech of other students, or "interlanguage talk" (Krashen, 1981). I have argued that interlanguage talk probably does more good than harm, but if students hear only interlanguage talk, there is some chance they may acquire the errors they hear, leading to fossilization (Krashen, 1985a). The cure for this is to include native speakers in the games. Including native speakers as game participants violates one of the principles of sheltered subject matter teaching, but is consistent with a deeper principle: comprehensible input. When native speakers are in the game, their input can be highly comprehensible and useful; because of the constraints of the game, the students will have background knowledge to help them understand what the native speakers are saying.

For second language acquisition, finding participants is not a problem, since enthusiastic gamers are present in all school and university campuses. For foreign language situations, native speakers are harder to find, but when they are available, their task in the classroom will be obvious—simply to participate in the game.

Implementation

Implementation of SSMT requires some planning and effort, but it is not as hard to do as some exotic language teaching methods. One possibility is to move toward SSMT gradually, beginning with short modules as part of traditional intermediate classes. As these modules are developed and introduced into the curriculum, the language courses will take on the character of content-based second language classes and second language medium classes.

Footnotes

1. I am assuming some familiarity with the Input Hypothesis, the hypothesis that we acquire language in only one way, by understanding messages. See e.g. Krashen (1982, 1985a).

2. SSMT is not the only way of helping students move beyond conversational language. Other techniques include encouraging free voluntary reading and the proper use of the student's first language (bilingual education). (For supporting arguments, as well as ways in which SSMT can be combined with bilingual education see Krashen, 1985a, 1985b).

3. Interestingly, Scott et. al. also found that instruction using French as a language of instruction was also a significant predictor of English proficiency. French/Spanish as a language of instruction was not a significant predictor in Gradman and Hanania's study, however. The strongest predictor of English proficiency in Gradman and Hanania was "extracurricular reading."

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The Language of Subject-Matter Textbooks: Barriers to Learning?

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The growth of content-based ELT (CELT) is a promising development in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) which has led to an examination of the relationship between language and content. Among the more thoughtful studies in this area are Mohan's (1986) attempt to show how the intellectual acts in learning can be related to language forms in order to facilitate second language acquisition, and Bhatia's (1983) method of restructuring difficult legal texts to reveal the underlying rhetorical relations and thus make the study of law somewhat easier for non-native speakers of English. However, such studies rarely concern themselves with the adequacy of the teaching materials themselves from the viewpoint of language, yet language can be problematic. The possibility that the language of subject-matter textbooks such as are sometimes used in content-based ELT can present actual barriers to learning was explored in the present study by subjecting one chapter of an introductory-level university sociology textbook[1] to close analysis from the standpoint of the adequacy of the language used for explaining concepts and presenting data.

A Look at Textbook Language

Baker (1986) notes that most introductory sociology textbooks are never reviewed in scholarly journals, and claims that there is "ample evidence of careless work" (p. 60). Careless writing may render a text less than perfect, of course, but at what point does the text become *problematic* for the nonnative speaker?

Preliminary analysis of the textbook's chapter on deviance and social control revealed the existence of several types of *prima facie* problems. To determine whether they in fact constituted barriers to learning, the passages concerned were presented to a group of ESL students in the form of multiple-choice reading comprehension questions (see Appendix).

The students in the study were Indonesian civil servants (primarily university lecturers and government researchers) enrolled in a six-month intensive, TOEFL-oriented, pre-departure program in Jakarta, conducted by the World University Service of Canada as preparation for subsequent graduate study in Canada.[2] None had majored in sociology, psychology, or anthropology, though undoubtedly some had taken one or more courses in those fields while undergraduates. In the program, they had been divided into four classes of approximately thirteen students each. Based on official and institutional TOEFL results, the average TOEFL levels for the four classes were estimated as: Class A, 550; Class B, 505; Class C, 490; Class D, 475. Students at these levels can also be found at English-medium universities as well as those who, in an EAP program, are likely to be studying CELT. Data were obtained from a total of fifty-one students. In answering the questions, the students

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were asked not to spend too much time on the task, and all completed it within twenty minutes.

Confusing Explanations of Concepts

Of obvious concern are confusing explanations of concepts. Only one was found in the chapter, but it is instructive, since it involves a speech pattern found fairly often in daily life and, perhaps more importantly for these students, in professors' lectures:

> The most common response to anomie is innovation, which occurs when people desire cultural goals but pursue them through illegal or other socially disapproved means.

Only two of the fifty-one students understood that the authors meant to provide a definition of innovation here. Two-thirds thought that innovation was *a result of* the pursuit of cultural goals through socially disapproved means (See appendix, question 2). Undoubtedly, this was due to the phrasing, "innovation ... occurs when ...." Of particular interest here is the fact that the frequency of drawing that wrong conclusion was strongly related to English proficiency as measured by TOEFL (see Table 1).

TABLE 1

Highest TOEFL score (official or institutional)		d. innovation is the result.
450-474	(N=2)	50%
475-499	(N=15)	53%
500-524	(N=14)	57%
525-549	(N=9)	78%
550+	(N=10)	90%

(Note: one student did not provide a highest TOEFL score.)

Factually Incorrect Implications

Another area of concern are passages which are factually misleading. One presented to students (Question 4) dealt with the legal powers of police:

> We use formal agents of social control, such as police, who have the power to control behavior through levying fines or imprisoning people.

Understandably, nearly every student (47 out of 51) read this sentence as meaning that police have the authority to levy fines and put people in prison. While this may be closer to the truth in some countries, it is not true in the United States, where the textbook was written and intended for use.

In a second example of this type (Question 3) the authors were referring to fraud involving arson:

> Arson is often committed intentionally in order to collect insurance on property that is no longer profitable.

Arson is a serious crime (a felony), and intention (*mens rea*, or "guilty mind") is one of its defining characteristics. However, over seventy percent of the students in the study inferred from the sentence that arson can also be committed *un*intentionally. Again, the higher the students' English ability, the more likely was the quite logical but factually incorrect inference (see Table 2).

TABLE 2

Highest TOEFL score (official or institutional)		'arson can be committed unintentionally'
450-474	(N=2)	50%
475-499	(N=15)	60%
500-524	(N=14)	64%
525-549	(N=9)	89%
550+	(N=10)	100%

Ordinary Ambiguity

Two passages were totally ambiguous. In the first, seeking to show that so much of everyday behavior is governed by criminal statute that it is difficult for the average person to avoid technically breaking the law, the authors presented a lengthy list of prohibited acts in one American state, asserting:

> Few college students can honestly claim to have never committed some of these offenses listed below.

Sixty-one percent of the respondents selected one of the following interpretations of the meaning of that sentence:

> Most students have committed at least a few of the offenses. (14%)
>
> Some of the offenses have been committed

by most students. (47%)

Arguably, both are plausible, and there is nothing in the context in this case that would show which one represents the authors' actual intended meaning (see Question 1).

The second example is ambiguous in the extreme due to the careless writing:

> One study revealed that people were more than twice as likely to consider homosexuality deviant than murder.

It helps only slightly to surmise that the word "more" was to have been inserted in front of "deviant." Students responses in this case were spread rather evenly among the following interpretations (see Question 5):

> People thought homosexuality was more deviant than murder. (29%)

> The number of people who thought homosexuality was more deviant than murder was greater than the number who thought murder was more deviant than homosexuality. (31%)

> The number of people who thought homosexuality was deviant was greater than the number who thought murder was deviant. (35%)

The authors' point was that moral judgements sometimes do not accord with legal categories, but it is difficult even for a native speaker to determine which, if any, of the alternatives presented to students represents what the authors meant to say.

The Creation of New Problems

Perhaps most interesting of all, and also most vexing from the viewpoint of teaching, are passages which lead to conclusions or inferences which actually *conflict* with what the authors are attempting to achieve. Below, the authors' point is that government crime statistics exaggerate the criminality of the poor:

> The FBI Crime Index emphasizes crimes such as assault that the less well-to-do are more likely to commit rather than embezzlement or gambling that appeal to more middle-class people.

The source of the problem here is the juxtaposition of nonviolent crime as "appealing to" the middle classes, and the lower classes being "likely to commit" violent crimes. Would the reader then infer that poor people commit violent crimes because of preference rather than because of limited opportunities to embezzle?

In this instance, the students were asked to indicate *all* of the four choices presented with which they agreed (Question 6). More than half chose the two which are simply restatements:

> Middle-class people prefer gambling and embezzlement to assault. (56%)

> Lower-income people are more likely to commit assault than the crimes of gambling and embezzlement. (57%)

The same number made the inferential leap from 'appeal' to 'behavior' in the case of middle-class crime:

> Middle-class people are more likely to commit the crimes of gambling and embezzlement than assault. (57%)

What is worrisome is that many students also made the reverse leap:

> Lower-income people prefer assault to gambling and embezzlement. (29%)

This proposition, that the poor differ in their essential predilections, is exactly *opposite* the authors' teaching point, namely, that the unsavory portrait of the poor can be attributed in part to differential reporting of various types of crimes. In this case, the proportion of students who drew the 'wrong' conclusion *decreased* as TOEFL level increased:

Class A: 14%
Class B: 23%
Class C: 36%
Class D: 46%

The numbers involved here are admittedly small, but an interpretation of this contrasting relationship between inferencing and TOEFL level can be offered (see below).

In a second example (Question 7), the passage seems to distort the relationship among words, referents, and connotations:

> The terms "queer," "murderer," "lunatic," and "whore" suggest the strong emotions

that underlie the deviant labels.

The apparent expectation is that readers will be able to appreciate the strong emotional disapproval referred to through the process of introspection, drawing on their own familiarity with the use of these terms in daily life. Not only would this obviously pose a problem for the nonnative speaker of English, but the beginning sociology student might also infer a *natural* connection between the deviant labels and the underlying emotions. The reality, of course, is that these labels "suggest" the underlying emotions precisely because—and only because—it is their function to mean those things. (Contrast their absence in the case of "homosexual," "mentally ill person," or "prostitute.")

The most reasonable alternative presented to the students was the least frequently chosen:

> The terms are merely one way of referring to the emotions. (18%)

The most common choice was indeed one that suggested that there is a natural connection between lexical item and emotional connotation:

> The terms are a direct reflection of the emotions. (39%)

The sociology textbook deals with neither semantics nor sociolinguistics, yet it is troubling to imagine how the comprehension problems of the nonnative speaker of English will be compounded.

A third example was not presented to the students, but it is equally illuminating of the problems that can arise in poorly written texts. Early in the chapter, the authors had stressed that, although many people approach deviant behavior in an "absolute" way in everyday life, "judging certain behavior and characteristics to be good or bad and right or wrong by comparing them to fixed standards," *sociologists* do not find such approaches to be useful. Later, however, discussing sentencing in criminal law, they assert:

> Punishment should be equitable, whether the crime occurs on a slum street or a corporate boardroom.

The problem here is not only the missing preposition and the fact that equity is not a criminal law concept but a civil law concept. Far from illustrating the sociological approach to deviant behavior that the student is exhorted to adopt, the passage itself exemplifies the judging of certain behavior (criminal sentencing) by comparing it to a fixed standard (equal treatment without regard to social class) that the authors had earlier attributed to nonsociologists.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to take a close, sentence-level look at a university textbook in order to determine whether unclear language might present difficulties for the reader (in particular, the nonnative speaker of English). In TESOL, to be sure, language is not only the subject matter, but receives considerable attention as the vehicle of instruction as well. If the textbook used in the present study is at all representative, it seems risky to assume that language always receives sufficient attention in other disciplines. In CELT, this undoubtedly is even more of an issue than it may be in the various subject-matter disciplines.

Several dimensions to the problem of careless writing can be noted. First is the sheer likelihood of miscommunication. For instance, one example from the chapter examined (not presented to students) is amusing but not very likely to mislead: "predominately ... homosexual." (Most students would probably mistake the word for the one actually intended, "predominantly.") Other passages, however, clearly did mislead. In the study, students "learned" that police can levy fines and send people to prison, arson can be committed unintentionally, and the pursuit of goals through socially disapproved means is a result of innovation rather than its definition.

In the case of teaching sociology, another problem is the extent to which unclear writing may actually reinforce preexisting popular beliefs, defeating the purpose at hand. The authors of the textbook examined in the study maintain that, although some critics hold that sociology merely documents what everybody already knows, social reality is in fact more complex. Yet the development of a true sociological perspective will be thwarted by the type of inferences drawn by many students in the present study: the poor prefer violent crime;

there is an objective standard for criminal sentencing; and there is a natural connection among words, referents, and connotations.

The fact that several of the questions presented to the students involved language so unclear that even native speakers of English are hard put to answer with assurance testifies to the reality of the problem. However, not only are nonnative speakers likely to be even more strongly affected in general than are native speakers of English (for linguistic as well as sociolinguistic or cultural reasons), but the level of English ability of the students in the study showed a very strong correlation with their responses in three instances. In the case of the statement that the poor prefer violent crime, higher-level students' better responses most reasonably suggest superior propositional ("logical") inferencing skills. On the other hand, those same students had a higher proportion of "incorrect" answers in two cases involving intra-sentential inferencing ("innovation" and "arson"). Because the study design involved the use of decontextualized sentences, it is not possible to say whether the higher-level students would have avoided drawing those apparently logical but wrong inferences had the complete texts been presented to them. What can be surmised is that the higher-level students demonstrated superior morphological and syntactic inferential skills—which, ironically, led to wrong conclusions due to the carelessness of the authors.

In the case of nonnative speakers studying in a regular university program, the level of the subject-matter course also should have an effect. At first glance, it might seem likely that advanced courses would pose the greatest challenge, much as advanced-level ELT textbooks are more challenging than beginner-level ones. However, the role of language is actually more critical in introductory courses. It is in those courses that the discipline's many basic concepts are presented for the first time; some students are taking those courses merely to fulfill a requirement; and nonnative speakers' English language ability is predictably lower than it will be later, when they take advanced courses. Broadly speaking, content-based ELT more closely resembles introductory rather than advanced university courses in these respects.

A further consideration is that, the use of lectures notwithstanding, a content course is in large part a written-language course. "Attending lectures is no substitute for reading the textbook," as is often said. Since in general ESL-speakers have more difficulty than others in comprehending classroom lectures, they have to place comparatively more emphasis on learning from the textbook itself, and thus will be more strongly affected by unclear writing than will their classmates. Here, too, the same general issue arises in the case of content-based ELT, though the problem will be ameliorated if the "adjunct" model" (see Snow & Brinton, 1988) is used. As is argued below, this problem can be turned on its head as well.

Implications for CELT

Clearly, this study indicates that materials used in CELT need to be evaluated as to the clarity or adequacy of the language itself. But there are also implications for learning in the classroom itself, that is, learning from lectures. The passages examined in this study are the joint product of two experienced university professors, and obviously survived the careful scrutiny of the authors themselves plus, we must assume, a bevy of editors and editorial assistants. To what type of scrutiny are *classroom lectures* subjected? How do we know when lecturers have met their responsibility to explain concepts and present data in an adequate manner? Indeed, how is that responsibility defined?

It is questionable whether professors in general, perhaps including ELT instructors as well, ever attribute students' comprehension problems to their textbooks, not to mention shortcomings in the instructors' own classroom lectures. And, in the university setting, where 'nonnative speaker' may well become a "master status," it seems almost a certainty that the problems of nonnative speakers are routinely assumed to be due to their lower level of English ability, not to the textbook, nor to the lecturer. As the data presented above show, the situation may actually be more complex. Since the language of classroom lectures, like that of textbooks, is rarely or never evaluated, what begs to be done next is to subject a sample of classroom lecturing to the same type of close examination attempted in the present study. In

addition to providing essential information on what is actually presented to students, such research could also increase our understanding of students' subjective responses to unclear language. Since classroom lectures are usually presented within a lecture/discussion format, where further clarification is anticipated through student participation in classroom discussion, the well-known "problem" of the reticent foreign student comes into sharper focus as well.

The opposite point can be made as well. The importance of providing ELT students with real-life language is rather well recognized, especially in areas such as conversational English or listening comprehension. The guiding principle here, of course, is that of *not* selecting only the most comprehensible and well-formed English. For EAP in general, and CELT in particular, it must be remembered that students are being prepared not for more EAP and CELT, but for the real academic world. Restricting teaching materials to only carefully selected, well-written texts constitutes a misrepresentation of that world. Thus while the first requirement is to be aware of the existence of language which is so poor that it actually misleads or defeats the purpose at hand, the second is to increase students' awareness of it, too. This task, however, is not only time consuming but unrewarding. In the writer's experience, students often feel rather disappointed when shortcomings in the textbook are pointed out to them. To be sure, they are relieved to at last be able to understand what was confusing when they first read the material, but they seem not to understand why materials of dubious quality have been used at all.

Further Suggestions

Broadly speaking, given not only the increased interest in CELT but the growing internationalization of education in anglophone countries and the use of English-medium textbooks in non-anglophone countries, these problems can be said to deserve more attention than they have been given. In addition to paying greater attention to the materials utilized in CELT, and EAP in general, English teachers might well become involved in reviewing new textbooks (especially introductory-level textbooks), or even in editing textbooks. And certainly there would be many opportunities, in a university setting, to assist colleagues in the selection of subject-matter textbooks. Activities such as these would not only be of eventual direct benefit to students, but would increase colleagues' awareness of the importance of language in teaching as well as the particular needs of nonnative English speakers, perhaps first with respect to written materials, and then with respect to classroom lectures. Certainly there is no one better equipped to make contributions such as these than the ELT professional.

Footnotes

[1]This textbook was prescribed for and used in a first-year sociology course which the writer taught at an American university in 1986.

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APPENDIX:

INSTRUCTIONS: Please answer these questions to the best of your ability, but without spending too much time on them, and without using a dictionary. Answer the questions strictly on the basis of the passages (quotations) given. Choose the best answer.

1. "Few college students can honestly claim to have never committed some of these offenses listed below."

According to this sentence which of the following is true?

a. Most students have committed at

least a few of the offenses.
b. Most of the offenses have been committed by at least some students.
c. A few students have committed at least some of the offenses.
d. Some of the offenses have been committed by most students.

2. "The most common response to anomie is innovation, which occurs when people desire cultural goals but pursue them through illegal or other socially disapproved means."

How is innovation related to the pursuit of cultural goals through socially disapproved means?

a. Innovation is the cause.
b. Innovation happens at the same time.
c. Innovation is the same thing.
d. Innovation is the result.

3. "Arson is often committed intentionally in order to collect insurance on property that is no longer profitable."

According to this sentence is arson ever committed unintentionally?

a. Yes
b. No

4. "We use formal agents of social control, such as police, who have the power to control behavior through levying fines or imprisoning people."

According to this sentence which of the following is true?

a. Only police can levy fines and put people in prison.
b. Formal agents of social control—but not police—can levy fines and put people in prison.
c. Police and other formal agents of social control can levy fines and put people in prison.
d. Police cannot levy fines and put people in prison because they are not formal agents of social control.

5. "One study revealed that people were more than twice as likely to consider homosexuality deviant than murder."

a. People thought homosexuality was more deviant than murder.
b. The number of people who thought homosexuality was more deviant than murder was greater than the number who thought murder was more deviant than homosexuality.
c. People thought murder was more deviant than homosexuality.
d. The number of people who thought homosexuality was deviant was greater than the number who thought murder was deviant.

6. "The FBI Crime Index emphasizes crimes such as assault that the less well-to-do are more likely to commit rather than embezzlement or gambling that appeal to more middle-class people."

Circle all of the following statements which, according to the sentence above, are true.

a. Lower-income people prefer assault to gambling and embezzlement.
b. Middle-class people prefer gambling and embezzlement to assault.
c. Lower-income people are more likely to commit assault than the crimes of gambling and embezzlement.
d. Middle-class people are more likely to commit the crimes of gambling and embezzlement than assault.

7. "The terms 'queer,' 'murderer,' 'lunatic,' and 'whore' suggest the strong emotions that underlie these deviant labels."

According to this sentence, which of the following statements is true?

a. The terms help us to understand the underlying emotions.
b. The terms are merely one way of referring to the emotions.
c. The terms are a direct reflection of the emotions.
d. The terms suggest but do not define the emotions.

Developing Video Materials for Content Courses

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In the past decade, the declining number of American college students has led to heavy international recruitment on the part of admissions offices and in some cases, the opening of overseas campuses. As a result, intensive English programs both in the US and abroad are filled with graduate and undergraduate students who intend to study in the United States. In order to prepare these students to compete successfully in classes with native-speakers, ESP components have been incorporated into the ESL curriculum. Moreover, the focus of upper level English courses has shifted from merely developing language skills to teaching them through content. The reason for this shift is to bridge the gap that has been shown to exist between native and nonnative speakers when it comes to understanding, manipulating and reformulating material presented in college courses. In a study carried out by Smoke (1988) only 18% of the international students questioned responded that they did feel prepared for college courses after completing an ESL program; 57% felt somewhat prepared and 25% felt unprepared. Difficulties they encountered included reading and understanding textbooks, writing research papers, talking to professors, taking notes from lectures, and answering exam questions (p. 13). This disparity signals an omission in the skills taught in ESL courses and points to the necessity of modeling them more closely after the very courses students are being prepared for: academic courses based on content.

When speaking about content courses for nonnative speakers, perhaps a definition of the range of possibilities the idea can encompass is called for. ESP courses, electives, and content modules are usually "sheltered courses" (Guyer & Peterson, 1988) taught within the context of an intensive ESL program. English for Business, in which both the vocabulary and concepts of business are taught, is a popular ESP course at universities today. Electives cover the spectrum of student interests, including computer literacy, English literature, American culture and so on. Content modules are mini-courses on a certain subject, such as the environment, women's issues, or AIDS which a teacher may choose to include in the semester syllabus using a thematic approach. "Adjunct courses" (*ibid.*) are credit-bearing courses which advanced ESL students take along with native speakers, but for which they also receive classroom support from an ESL teacher. The professor makes no special effort to simplify the language or the material for the international students. Since the majority of ESL teachers in universities in the U.S. and abroad are limited to teaching content within sheltered courses, I shall direct my remarks to them, although the supporting ESL teacher in the adjunct course could also profit from these guidelines.

Textbooks, newspapers, magazines, and videotapes are some of the pedagogical tools available to teachers for both introducing content and enhancing language skills. Many teachers have developed expertise in breaking down printed material into meaningful segments for ESL students. Doing the same for video material, however, requires different strategies. This article will provide guidelines for incorporating video into content courses. Topics include choosing videos, developing supplementary materials, using them in class and identifying sources from which videos can be obtained. Since much has already been written about the use of feature films (See Stempleski & Tomalin, 1990; Allan, 1985), I will limit my remarks to other genre such as the "short subject" video and the documentary, the ones most likely to be used in content courses.

"Short subject" videos tend to be 30 minutes or less and present facts about a subject, usually to create an impression, form an opinion or simply to provide information to the viewing public. An example of this genre is *The Subject is AIDS*, a 20-minute video available from the AIDS Action Committee in the U.S. which clears up some of the myths in circulation and gives advice for "safe sex" practices.

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Documentary videos are longer and give more in-depth coverage such as the history or background of a subject, its relation with other areas and the complexities of its future. *Rain Forest* is a 60-minute documentary produced by National Geographic which focuses on the rain forests of Costa Rica, the delicate balance of flora and flora, and the sad fact of their disappearance. These two types of video are more likely to be used in content courses than feature films, although feature films could also be used effectively, because they contain the vocabulary and concepts necessary to understand a topic and present it aurally and visually, in attractive, dramatic, and thought-provoking ways.

Choosing Content Videos

Appropriateness: When planning a course, teachers should set aside a period for previewing videos. During this time, the appropriateness of the video to the content of the course should be considered, as should the levels of interest and difficulty. A high-interest subject, even though difficult to understand, may be preferable to a low-interest one that is easy to understand. For example, *The Benetton Factory Tour* put out by the Harvard Business School for use with the Benetton case study is a rather complex explanation of how knitwear is manufactured in Italy. Since most students know about Benetton clothing, however, they find the manufacturing process fascinating and make an effort to learn the vocabulary used on the tape. The case is much easier to read, understand and discuss after seeing the process in the video.

Audio/Video Tracks: The audio track should be clear and relatively free from background noise such as sound-effects. The video track should be visually pleasing, as most professionally-made programs are, and reinforce the audio in such a way that new vocabulary, new concepts or the interrelation of ideas become clear. The mutual support that audio and video tracks provide is a feature that makes the medium ideal for introducing and reinforcing content within a course. Not all segments of a program will follow this pattern, however; sometimes the narration will not match the image. In *Rain Forest*, the narrator talks about cycles of plants and animals while the scene shows a rainstorm in the jungle. These artistic interludes serve a purpose in the overall framework of a video, but they could confuse students who look to the visual element for support. Teachers should note and point out instances that might confuse students.

Length: "Short subject" videos and documentaries vary in length, but a good rule of thumb for teachers unsure of how long a video lesson should last is 4:1, that is, four hours of class time to one hour of video. Broken down, this means that introduction, viewing, tasks and follow-up should take at least two hours for a 30-minute program and four hours for a 60-minute program. Since ideally the viewing should take place in segments, with time for exercises in between, it is better to allow more, rather than less, time to complete the tape.

Developing Materials

Organization: While previewing a tape, the teacher should make notes on the organization of the video. Most "short subject" tapes and documentaries have an introduction by an on- or off-camera narrator. If the narrator is off-camera, graphics, scenery, or other visuals give the background or set the scene for the subject. From then on the narrator is usually off-camera, and will clarify, analyze or summarize the information presented in visual sequences.

The teacher should also note how the video is segmented so that it can be paused, as mentioned above, to allow time for clarification or task completion. Groups of exercises should correspond to the logical breaks in the program. In *The Subject is AIDS*, for example, there is a title screen on ways AIDS cannot be transmitted followed by fast music and a collage of short scenes: people sharing sports equipment, bathrooms, make-up, food, and so forth. At the end of this segment, the teacher can pause the VCR and ask students to list ways that AIDS cannot be transmitted. After that exercise, the next segment can be played.

Exercises: Exercises will vary according to the format and content of the video; for example, a segment of the Benetton tape is about the knitting and dyeing of sweaters. An exercise on the sequence of production involving specific vocabulary would be appropriate. At an advanced level, preteaching vocabulary is not advisable; an important strategy for students to learn is using context clues to decipher

meaning. With video, the clues are both visual and aural, and students should be taught to use them. Darkening the screen so that they only hear the audio track or turning down the volume so that they only see the image are ways of calling attention to the different modes in which information is transmitted.

Besides vocabulary manipulation, outlining and notetaking should also be stressed. Teachers can give incomplete outlines or instruct the class to make group outlines so as to strengthen this academic skill. Clarifying, analyzing and summarizing the information presented through questions and answers in pairs or groups is helpful as well. In *Rain Forest*, there are no clear segments in the program except for the introduction and conclusion. The rest of the tape is comparable to a random walk through the jungle with stops here and there to look at different plants and animals. In this case, an incomplete outline is a good way to organize the tape. For advanced students, the names and a few characteristics of each plant or animal can be given and they can fill in the rest either alone or in pairs. For intermediate students, multiple choice questions or matching would probably work better. Since the tape is 60 minutes long, a combination of these exercises would probably be more effective than one type all the way through; the teacher would have to arbitrarily decide where to segment it.

What is most important to remember is that exercises are a way of giving students "handles" on the vocabulary they are expected to learn and the concepts they are expected to understand. They can, with enough time, bore through a text and understand an explanation of the germination of a seed, using a dictionary to look up unknown words. Time can be considerably shortened by a labeled illustration and immensely shortened by a video. The visual part will be crystal clear, but the aural part may pass them by unless they are prepared in some way to comprehend. After it is understood, students also need to practice clarifying, analyzing and summarizing the information presented through discussion or written assignments.

Using Videos in Class

Introductory/Follow-up Activities: As with reading material, videos should not be shown in a vacuum, but rather couched in the reading, writing, or discussion material of the course. Videos can be shown at the beginning of a unit to introduce a subject, in the middle to clarify points, or at the end to summarize what was learned. Articles from newspapers, magazines or college texts should supplement the content of the video and class discussions and writing projects support it.

Techniques: The video should be segmented so teachers have a chance to check for understanding, especially if it is long. This is done by checking the exercises periodically. Techniques prescribed for feature films usually work well with "short subjects" and documentaries. (See Stempleski & Tomalin 1990; or Cooper, Lavery, & Rinvolucri 1991) Segments can be played with only the audio or video so that students can do an exercise relying only on one mode; then they can be played again using both tracks so that the answers can be checked. In *The 30-Second Seduction*, a tape put out by Consumer Reports, there is a series of advertisements which are discussed by an expert. A teacher can play them until just before the products are shown and then ask the students to guess what they are advertising. Although this sounds easy, students soon realize that advertising does not so much promote a product as appeal to a viewer's emotions.

There are several ways to approach showing a video. For example, if it is a "short subject" it can be seen several times while students do different tasks each time. If, on the other hand, it is an hour-long documentary, there may not be time to show it more than once, or the students may tire of it if you do. Segments for which there are exercises can be shown first and discussed, then the tape can be viewed in its entirety.

If you teach advanced students, you may simply want to do introductory and follow-up activities and show the tape without stopping. In a series called *The Mind*, there is a tape entitled "Language" which examines the development of speech in humans. It is divided into twelve segments which last about 5-6 minutes each, and each segment shows an expert in a particular area of language talking about his or her work. The concepts are quite sophisticated, so the only exercise the students are required to do is to see if they can under-

stand the main idea of the speaker which they pick from a multiple choice list. This hopefully improves students' ability to understand extended segments of uninterrupted speech — a skill vital to success in academic classes.

Although feature films can also be used in content courses very effectively, "short subjects" and documentaries usually carry more "content", i.e. factual information. In films, three elements (the characters, setting and storyline) contribute inadvertently to content; in the latter, the entire program contributes to content. Courses on American Culture often include the film *Witness* to show the lifestyle of the Amish in Pennsylvania. While many aspects of their lifestyle are revealed in the film, of major importance are the two main characters, Rachel and John, the incompatibility of their value systems and the impossibility of their love. A documentary on the Amish, however, would delve into the history of this religious group, the different sects and beliefs, the geographic areas they live in and details of their lifestyle. So if a teacher is concerned more with imparting factual information, "short subjects" and documentaries are more effective. On the other hand, if a teacher wants to concentrate on values clarification or other subjective areas, films are more desirable.

Sources of Content Videos

The sources from which content videos can be obtained are myriad in the U.S. Locating them in other countries may be more problematic, but by networking with interested teachers, solutions are sure to be found.

Libraries: The least expensive source of videos is public and school libraries, which lend them either free of charge or with a small deposit. University film libraries usually have a wide variety of films available to teachers and students, and many have begun to transfer older films from the 16 mm format onto video cassettes to update and streamline equipment on campus. Moreover, many departments have a standing allowance per semester for video and equipment rental, which means it costs nothing for an ESL program within the university to rent videos.

Community Service Organizations: Organizations such as the Red Cross, the American Cancer Society, and the AIDS Action Committee, lend educational tapes free of charge. As their mission is to spread information about a certain subject, they are most cooperative when it comes to disseminating material. Because there is no charge, they receive numerous requests, so it is necessary to plan carefully and reserve videos well in advance of the date they are needed.

Video Rentals/Sales: In addition to feature films, many video stores now carry documentaries. Tapes on geography, science, business, fine arts and culture may be rented or bought at fairly low prices. Mail-order video clubs also sell tapes at reasonable prices and have recently begun to promote documentaries.

Producers: National Geographic, the Public Broadcasting System (PBS), and other major producers offer videotapes to the public through catalogs. Series such as *Nova*, dealing with science and technology, *Enterprise*, business and economics, *Discover*, advances in different disciplines, *Frontline*, current events, and *Oil*, the petro-chemical industry, give teachers a wide range of topics to choose from. Unfortunately, they are not cheap and may cost as much as $300. The United Nations also distributes films and videos at U.N. Information Centers, located in the capital cities of most countries. Available for sale, rental or loan to educational institutions, agencies or clubs, they describe the work of the U.N. in areas such as disarmament, peacekeeping, development, environment, and population. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) serves as a source in Europe while the British Council and the United States Information Service can be contacted in other countries for information they have available.

When buying videotapes abroad for use at home, be sure to check the format (PAL, SECAM, NTSC) to see if it is compatible with the equipment at your institution. Generally, PAL is used in Europe, India, China, North Africa and the southern part of South America, SECAM in Russia, Mongolia and Eastern Europe, NTSC, in North America, Central America, the northern part of South America, Japan and Korea. Multistandard VCRs can be purchased for playing tapes of different formats, but they are extremely expensive.

Many videotapes now produced in the U.S. and the U.K. are closed captioned, making their use in EFL classes particularly effective.

Students can watch a tape once with captions and again without captions for more thorough understanding, especially if their level of listening comprehension is not on par with the level of language on the tapes.

Conclusion

In addition to teaching the mechanics of English and communicative skills, teachers of content courses can help develop a student's academic competence by coordinating their activities with other academic classes. Video is a rich supplement for students learning new concepts and specialized vocabulary. Information is conveyed in two modes, the aural and visual, allowing for a variety of learning styles and providing different types of reinforcement through task-based viewing. Video also adds another dimension to courses by delivering the content, whatever it may be, in living sound and color.

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The Content-Based Curriculum at ITM/MUCIA

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Since its inception in 1985, the ITM/MUCIA Cooperative Program in Malaysia has provided a two-year American undergraduate education to government-sponsored students. Those successful, now defined as having a CGPA of 2.5 or above, then transfer to universities throughout the United States to complete their degrees. The Project, a joint effort between the Institut Teknologi MARA (ITM) and the Big Ten Conference's Midwestern Universities Consortium for International Activities (MUCIA), has now sent more than three thousand two-year graduates to the United States. Terry Fredrickson directed the ESL program from 1987 until May, 1991, while Howard Reed and John J. Hagedorn were the principle coordinators of the content-based ESL curriculum during this time.

HISTORY AND RATIONALE

By Terry L. Fredrickson

It is not uncommon for ESL instructors, particularly those involved with preparing students for universities, to question the relevance of what they are doing. Why, they may wonder, must their programs continually compartmentalize language instruction into discrete components such as grammar, writing, reading, and listening and speaking? Is explicit grammar instruction really worth the effort? Do students have enough information or knowledge to write more than simple narratives or descriptive essays? How effective are reading courses where subject and genre change almost daily? Are listening and speaking courses coherent courses, or are they simply a series of loosely connected activities? And do any of these skill-based courses bear much resemblance to the content-based academic courses their students are preparing to enter?

Many creative ESL programs have gone a considerable way towards addressing these concerns. First, they have actively encouraged

coordination between components. Reading instructors may, for example, work closely with writing instructors and writing instructors may have considerable say over the grammar chosen for instruction, perhaps even teaching it themselves. ESL programs have also been paying increasingly more attention to content. The current ITM/MUCIA ESL administration, for example, is attempting to augment a traditional skill-based curriculum with challenging content by organizing the curriculum thematically, with each component selecting instructional material pertaining to themes such as children's rights, the role of women, or current political issues. Then, as students progress towards the MUCIA academic curriculum, the program offers a series of six-week modules focusing on various academic fields of study.

There are limits, however, to how well skill-based ESL programs can prepare students for academic courses. Not only are academic courses content-based, but the content increases in sophistication throughout the course. While one would hope to see an increasing level of linguistic sophistication in skill-based ESL courses, the content must necessarily remain relatively elementary. Even those courses attempting to use authentic academic materials are hard pressed to use examples beyond the introductory level since more advanced material assumes background that students (and perhaps instructors) don't have. Assessment, too, is content-based in academic courses. The students will never see proficiency-oriented questions like "What does the pronoun 'they' in line five refer to?" Above all, academic courses require an integrated mastery of the whole range of linguistic skills previously taught separately in ESL classes, and require learning strategies quite different from those involved in language acquisition.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in ambitious ESL programs skill-based curricula are supplemented by courses more directly applicable to academic preparation. One popular model for such courses is the "adjunct" model where students enrolled in credit-granting academic courses also attend special ESL sections for help with the linguistic demands of the course. This has never proven feasible in the ITM/MUCIA program, however, first because of the difficulties involved with scheduling several hundred students and, secondly, because the Malaysian sponsors have always viewed the place of ESL as prior to, not concurrent with, the academic program.

Instead the ITM/MUCIA ESL department devised a series of simulated academic courses, taught mainly by the ESL faculty members themselves. Originally, there were three eight-week courses covering topics in the physical sciences, the social sciences and the humanities. Eventually, this segment of the program evolved into one full semester (sixteen-weeks) course entitled "Topics in the History of Science" (THS), largely a case history in how ancient science developed our contemporary model of the solar system. Several years ago, a second, quite different, course was developed with the cooperation of the chemistry and physics departments to help students prepare for American style physical science courses. This course, "An Introduction to Critical Thinking in the Physical Sciences," more popularly known here as "Pre-science" (PS), was a full semester laboratory course staffed both by ESL faculty and teaching assistants from the chemistry and physics departments. (The coordinators of both courses will describe these courses in some detail below.)

The advantages of these courses were quickly apparent to all who taught them. The scientific orientation of the courses fit well with the needs of MUCIA students who are predominantly headed for scientific and technical fields. And while the instructors' primary focus was on the presentation of content, their ESL training afforded them special opportunities for language/study skill instruction in a highly realistic learning environment. THS was listening and reading intensive while PS,

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with its weekly five page laboratory reports, was more writing intensive than many composition courses. The demands of both closely paralleled those of academic courses. They required integrated language skills, the material covered increased dramatically in sophistication over time, and both used assessment methods and instruments common to academic work.

The biggest problem in setting up this segment of the curriculum involved staffing since few ESL instructors seem to feel comfortable in scientifically-oriented courses. However, ITM/MUCIA was fortunate in having a core of American instructors willing to spend the time required to learn the material. Then, as the courses became established, ITM/MUCIA began to hire specifically for the content-based courses, generally Americans for THS and scientifically trained Malaysians for PS.

There are many other opportunities for content-based courses outside of the physical sciences. At ITM/MUCIA I have taught, in addition to THS and PS, an introduction to the social sciences and a short history of Southeast Asia. At the University of Minnesota I wrote and taught an introduction to the English language news media, certainly one of the most productive content-based courses I have ever been involved with. The choice of content depends very much on the interests and training of the faculty and the needs of the students. At ITM/MUCIA, the physical sciences clearly took priority and the following is a description of the resulting courses.

PRE-SCIENCE: PREPARATION FOR ACADEMIC SCIENCE COURSES

By John J. Hagedorn

Because most of the students in the ITM/MUCIA program are educated largely by rote in secondary school, their physics and chemistry professors have often found them unprepared for the hands-on/discovery learning and analytical thinking common to American university science courses. Since the ESL department is primarily responsible for preparing incoming students for academic work, it was the natural unit to assist in a solution. Three years ago, with the active cooperation of the physics and chemistry departments, the ESL department introduced a new non-credit physical science laboratory course known locally as "Pre-science." (PS) designed to give pre-university students a better appreciation of the type of science they would soon encounter.

Course development began with a series of meetings with the physics and chemistry professors. This produced a rough syllabus based on weekly laboratory experiments from these two fields. The experiments were selected and organized by the science departments while the ESL department planned the linguistic aspects of the course (vocabulary, report writing, etc.). The course developers felt strongly that students should perform the experiments on their own (instead of simply watching a demonstration) to familiarize themselves with standard laboratory techniques (filling pipettes, using balances, etc.). Detailed reports would also be required to make students review and analyze their observations and to summarize their discoveries in a scientifically acceptable style.

PS was scheduled as a part of the ESL curriculum, but was furnished and supplied almost entirely by the science departments. It was conducted in an unused laboratory adequately equipped with tables, stools, and sinks. All necessary laboratory materials were set up before class by a lab assistant who, incidentally, was also on loan. Lecturers from both the ESL and the science departments taught the course, and a science professor acted as a resource person. A healthy dose of interdisciplinary sharing was essential for those teaching the course for the first time. Meetings were regularly scheduled so that ESL and science lecturers could brush up on each other's disciplines.

The fully developed sixteen-week course was divided into three units, each focusing on one section of the written lab report. The course began with defining the purpose of an experiment and collecting data. This involved training the students to recognize an experiment's objectives and to phrase them concisely in a brief statement. In addition, the students learned the difference between qualitative and quanti-

tative data as well as various methods of collecting and displaying data effectively on charts and graphs. They also discovered how various independent variables can affect the measurement of a dependent variable and how error can affect the entire experiment. The second unit was concerned with interpreting results and drawing inferences. For the majority of the students, this was their first experience with data analysis. Here, students were taught to look for relationships between variables and to write generalizations about the relationships they found. Such inferences provided the foundation for the third unit in which students learned to plausibly explain the results, to write hypotheses, and to suggest further experimentation.

The course was conducted in two sessions weekly. The first, one hour long, allowed the instructor to give quizzes, comment on reports from the previous labs, introduce the next lab, and distribute handouts which explained the experiment's basic principles. The handouts also provided a list of relevant vocabulary, including the names of each piece of equipment to be used. The actual experiment lasted two hours. It began with a brief lecture which generally contained examples of practical applications, several relevant anecdotes, and an explanation of lab procedures.

Once the students began the experiment, it was easy to get them to talk about it. For example, a simple question such as "What are you doing now?" would evoke descriptive discourse while a more analytical question such as "Why are you doing that?" forced students to conceptualize in English. Then, as the experiment progressed and the students began to see patterns emerging from their data, questions like "What do you think will happen next?" required students to make a prediction.

After the lab, the students took home their notes and data to be organized into comprehensive laboratory reports which were submitted the following week and evaluated by the lecturer. As the course was writing intensive, final evaluations were based heavily on the average lab report grade, but weekly quizzes, homework assignments, midterm and final examinations, class participation, and an oral report on a recent development in science were also considered.

All of the lecturers who taught PS recognized its value for both language and academic preparation. In science, students learned to collect, display, and analyze data and to perform basic lab procedures that would be used repeatedly in future courses. In language, students learned to describe and explain scientific phenomena in both spoken and written English, and they also established a basic scientific vocabulary. The fact that they did this *prior to* their entry into academic work, gave them a significant head start in their university careers.

TOPICS IN THE HISTORY OF SCIENCE

By Howard Reed

"Topics in the History of Science" (THS) is a content-based ESL course developed at ITM/MUCIA to serve as a "stepping stone" between traditional skill-based ESL courses and full time academic coursework. Offered in the last semester before a student enters the academic program, THS is designed to closely simulate coursework in the academic program in that it involves an extended and in-depth treatment of a single topic, is conducted primarily in a lecture style, makes use of authentic academic readings, and mastery of content is the primary criterion for evaluation.

The course differs from academic coursework, however, in that the teacher is an ESL specialist whose goal, aside from teaching content, is to help the student develop essential academic survival skills. Given the realistic setting and the student's heightened motivation to communicate accurately, the teacher is well-positioned to take full advantage of opportunities to address language problems as they arise and to teach study and test-taking skills.

The subject matter covered in THS is essentially a history of the development of astronomical models of the universe. The students begin by learning the basic "data" that must be accounted for in any satisfactory model, namely, how the visible celestial objects appear to move relative to an earth-bound ob-

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server. For the uninitiated it is worth pointing out that this does not involve any "high science." Apparent motions of the stars, the sun, the moon, and the five classical planets were carefully observed and well known to astrologers and stargazers thousands of years before the invention of the telescope.

Once students have become familiar with these apparent motions and have acquired the vocabulary to discuss them, attention turns to theories used to explain them. Here, a chronological approach is taken, beginning with the primitive cosmologies of Egypt and the first tentative steps toward rational explanation of natural phenomena taken by the ancient Babylonians. The course devotes the most time to an examination of the ancient Greeks who, in naturalism, consolidated a philosophical basis for the development of science, leading to the development of a multitude of sophisticated theories to account for apparent celestial motions. Then, leapfrogging more than a millennium to Copernicus, the sun-centered theory is considered seriously for the first time. The course ends with Kepler and Galileo, whose discoveries finally led to the establishment of our current understanding of the structure of the solar system.

Throughout this adventure, students are encouraged to "participate in" the development of the modern theory by critically evaluating alternative theories and supporting or rejecting them on the basis of how completely, or "elegantly," they are able to account for the data. Students are also asked to consider to what extent the models were "reasonable" given the philosophical and scientific milieu in which they were developed. While, strictly speaking, it is the academic experience, not the content, that is the primary aim of the course, students obtain an invaluable perspective on the scientific method they will attempt to employ in subsequent university work.

THS clearly demands that students acquire a reasonably detailed technical understanding of ancient astronomical models. Still, it should be noted that the course content falls comfortably within what might be characterized as "lay" science. A background in astronomy or mathematics, while undoubtedly helpful, is not required of either students or teachers, and the course might just as likely be offered through a humanities department as any other. The willingness of ESL instructors of varied backgrounds to access the extensive body of reference material collected by teachers over the years, and to regularly consult experienced colleagues, has enabled them to manage well. Although the course is quite difficult the first time through, almost all instructors have been eager to teach it again.

In keeping with the goal of simulating academic coursework, content is taught chiefly through lectures and readings. During the initial "data gathering" phase of the course, however, class discussions and student presentations predominate. Students report on their direct naked-eye observations or, given the frequency of cloud cover in tropical Malaysia, on the results obtained from the impressively accurate astronomy computer programs now available.

The lecture style is not overly formal; students are encouraged to ask questions, express opinions or request clarification at any time. The information presented in lectures generally parallels and occasionally explicates that presented in the readings, but differences are intentionally built in so that students may not rely entirely on a single skill to learn the material. In other words, students must both attend lectures and do the readings to succeed.

Course materials primarily consist of handouts and collected readings. Since no appropriate textbook on this topic was known to be available, the course evolved around chapters and excerpts from various sources related to each segment of the course. This lack of cohesion, coupled with the relatively advanced reading level of the materials, initially put a great burden on the teacher, who was expected to knit the topics together into a coherent whole. This problem has been alleviated considerably, however, by adding transitions, writing new sections, adapting or replacing others, and, above all, organizing the material into chapters.

THS has no formal language component; problems are addressed as they arise rather

than on a planned basis. The teaching of certain study skills, on the other hand, *is* programmed into the syllabus with note taking receiving the most attention. While students have had some experience with note taking in earlier ESL courses, the vast majority are not sufficiently prepared to meet the demands of a real academic syllabus. In this course, techniques and exercises for note taking are introduced early in the semester and students are informed that they will be expected to take notes during each lecture. The instructor periodically collects, evaluates, and comments upon notebooks throughout the term, and ten percent of the course grade is based on mastery of this skill.

Reading and vocabulary skills are developed through exercises which have been collected into a workbook as companion to the readings. The SQ3R method is introduced early in the course and students are encouraged to use it as one method of coping with what are, for most students, fairly difficult readings. The development of test-taking skills is also emphasized as students are introduced to various test question formats and answering strategies. Thorough "debriefing" is done after each test to evaluate how and why errors were made.

The method of evaluation reflects the strong emphasis on content. Fully 80% of the final grade is based on performance on quizzes and the mid-term and final exams. The majority of items on the exams are drawn from an extensive test bank developed over the years, and the overwhelming majority of these are designed to test content rather than language skills. While only 20% of the final grade is based on performance in skill areas, it is assumed that success in the course reflects a level of language proficiency sufficient for survival in most lower division academic classes.

Such a strong emphasis on content is controversial within and without the ESL community. Many question both the capacity and the objectives of ESL instructors teaching content, seeing such courses as a stage for would-be academics. At ITM/MUCIA it has periodically been necessary to combat the misimpression that ESL instructors were teaching "astronomy" at the expense of language development. Even many of those who accepted the general concept, still argued that using topic modules of shorter duration would get around the issue of instructor expertise and put more focus on language and skill development.

Those who have taught the course, however, contend that the "simulation" approach taken in THS offers certain clear advantages over courses in which content is adapted to fit the goal of learning English. Given the chance to use English under realistic circumstances, students are usually better motivated to communicate effectively and to develop their language skills. The single-topic, in-depth approach requires students to communicate with considerably more precision and sophistication than they would in courses of shorter duration. And there is no real substitute for a full semester content-based course for the development of academic learning skills. Instructors have been struck by dramatic improvements in their students ability to cope with complex content in the varied situations (lectures, discussions, presentations, examinations both objective and subjective) that arise in the university classrooms. As such, THS was seen by all involved with the course to have met its purpose of preparing students for academic coursework at ITM/MUCIA. With appropriate modifications, it would seem to hold promise for use in academic preparation programs elsewhere.

A FINAL NOTE

The perceptive reader will have undoubtedly noted a certain indecision as to which tense, present or past, to use in this article. Technically, neither PS nor THS now exist. PS has evolved into a physics preparatory course administered and taught by the physics department. With the phase out of the American ESL faculty nearly complete, THS is undergoing a major condensation to make it fit with the modular approach now in place.

—Terry Fredrickson

4 Years Later—Are We Content with Content?

Laura Mayer and Max Mayer
Temple University Japan

The summer of 1987 was an eventful one for Temple University Japan and especially so for its Intensive English Language Program (IELP). The entire university had just moved to a new location in Tokyo; at the same time the IELP had a new administration and had more than doubled its enrollment and faculty in a matter of weeks. In addition, discussions were underway in the IELP to integrate the teaching of academic subject matter and second-language skills at the upper levels of the program. Such content-based instruction had been discussed before and an "adjunct model" (Brinton, Snow and Wesche 1989) had been tried out on a limited basis. (In the adjunct model, a content teacher is responsible for teaching content and a language teacher for language instruction.) But the idea of having the IELP instructors responsible for teaching both the content material and the second-language skills was relatively new and challenging. Until that summer, the curriculum had indeed focused on the development of linguistic and academic skills but none of the textbooks and materials in use were content-based. After much enthusiastic debate, discussion, and even drama, content courses were integrated into the curriculum in January 1988. Since then they have been taught to upper level IELP students whose TOEFL scores range from 440 to 500 and who are within one or two terms of entering Temple University's College of Arts and Sciences (CAS) as undergraduates.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CONTENT PROGRAM

The content courses at Temple do not wholly correspond to any of the three types outlined in Brinton et al. (theme, sheltered and adjunct) but combine elements of each type. The courses are taught entirely by IELP instructors and subject areas include Western Civilization, Natural Science, Psychology, American History, Geography, History of Western Art and Literature. Students receive 10 periods of instruction a week, usually five or six periods in the content area, three in writing and two in TOEFL preparation. They are also required to attend special lectures by guest speakers who are experts in some of the content areas taught in the IELP. Furthermore, they have to observe and write reports on two CAS classes of their choice. Some content classes, such as History of Western Art and Geography, have mandatory field trips.

As the program has evolved, some courses have been dropped while many others have been added, and curricula have changed term by term. The goals of the content program have, however, remained constant. Whether or not those goals have been met was the primary question we asked ourselves as we set out to evaluate the program. We found that not only have the original goals been met but that there have also been a number of unforeseen benefits for both students and teachers, as well as a few problems.

GOALS OF THE CONTENT PROGRAM

The content courses at Temple were designed to accomplish two specific goals: to prepare IELP students both for the undergraduate experience and for the academic tasks they would face in the College of Arts and Sciences, and to increase student motivation to study. It was felt that a content-based curriculum would prepare students for CAS courses in a number of ways. First, the thematic nature of the course would build up students' background knowledge of a particular subject area thereby making it easier for them to deal with the subject area in question if they chose to study it in CAS. However, even if they did not choose to study this area in the future, they would still gain some sense of academic issues and become accustomed to the analytical nature of academic tasks. In addition, the content

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material could be used as a basis for the same kinds of lectures and note-taking tasks that students would be exposed to in CAS. At the same time, the material would lend itself easily to the essay-type test questions that students would face in CAS. More importantly perhaps, there would be a heavier reading load than students were used to. This could only be beneficial as the gap between students' reading load in IELP and CAS was enormous. Secondly, given that our students' goals were to study similar types of courses in CAS (psychology, history and so on), the course designers felt that content courses would strongly motivate the students to study because they would perceive these courses to be inherently more interesting and relevant to their purpose in being at Temple. After all, they hadn't really come to university to study English; they had come to study literature, art, history, science and all of the other interesting subject areas offered at Temple.

Until now, no formal studies have been done to assess whether or not the original goals of the content courses have been met. There are, however, a number of procedures for communicating opinions and evaluations of the content courses to the administration. Each term, students are asked to submit written evaluations of their classes. These are then sorted and distributed to the appropriate teachers by the Program-wide Evaluation Committee. In addition, a Content Course Committee, comprised of an academic coordinator and several instructors, meets regularly to discuss matters such as new textbooks, curriculum, and the implementation of new content courses. For our purposes, however, we felt we could best evaluate the program by interviewing the students and teachers who experienced these courses firsthand.

THE STUDENT'S PERSPECTIVE

We interviewed students who had taken one or more content courses and have now been in the College of Arts and Sciences for at least a year. We also interviewed IELP students who are currently enrolled in a content course. In our discussions with them we found that content courses were an entirely different experience to anything they had previously encountered at Temple.

Our questions to the CAS students focused on how well the content courses had prepared them for undergraduate study, and whether their motivation to learn had increased. We asked the IELP students if they thought content courses would help them in CAS and posed similar questions about motivation. It quickly became apparent that reading is the area where students feel they make the most gains. The increased reading load in the content program helps them to prepare for the consistently large quantities of reading required in CAS. In addition, the nature of the content material motivates many students. One CAS student commented that she had been reluctant to read in her regular IELP classes. All that changed, however, when she took a content course in literature. The course material was so interesting that she had new desire and energy to read in English. Other students who have taken psychology content courses, for example, have shown a keen interest in reading supplementary material which is not required in the course itself. They have found some of the psychological theories and ideas they study in class to be applicable to themselves, family and friends, and want to learn more.

In the area of writing several CAS students remarked that the amount and type of assignments in content courses helped them to prepare for the stress, pace and regime of CAS writing. Writing assignments include extensive essays, weekly journals, field-trip reports, short essay questions on both in-class and out-of-class tests, and short research papers. And although many of these assignments initially proved to be extremely difficult and stressful for a number of students, eventually they helped to discipline them for the constant onslaught of papers and exams in CAS.

Many of the students we spoke to found the extensive listening/note-taking practice of content courses to be particularly helpful. Because there is a great deal of lecturing and explanation of terms and concepts, there is a constant need for students to take notes if they are to keep up with the class. Both the CAS and IELP students we interviewed felt that their listening and note-taking skills had improved by virtue of the sheer volume of information imparted to them.

One area which is always problematic for

students is vocabulary. Constantly looking up new words in the dictionary is tedious and boring for many of them and this can affect their desire to read frequently in English. Because of the thematic nature of a content course, however, new ideas and concepts become the framework for later ones and there is more motivation and relevance for the learning of new words. Consequently, the content courses help CAS and IELP students to appreciate the need for building their vocabulary in order to both understand lectures and be understood in their own writing and speaking. Indeed some students related how they had been able to use much of the vocabulary they studied in content courses in some of their CAS courses. One CAS student who took the IELP Art History course was very pleased with himself when he understood a number of the vocabulary items and concepts his Art History professor used while many of his classmates struggled with them. Another did, however, voice the obvious criticism that some vocabulary is simply too specialized for general use. Yet overall the students did feel they had come to understand that success in CAS was very much dependent on having an extensive vocabulary.

Students did, in addition, derive some unforeseen benefits from the content courses. An IELP student told us that studying subjects such as literature and American History has helped him to identify sooner with being in CAS. He had always felt somewhat uncomfortable when his friends in Japanese universities asked what he was studying and he had to reply "English." Now, however, he is taking a literature content class and he feels that he too is in university. Another student remarked that she had never really thought about art before, but through her art history course she had learned to appreciate it for the first time. Several other students commented that their psychology class had given them a real interest in mental health while a geography student said that his classes had motivated him to do something about environmental problems.

THE TEACHER'S PERSPECTIVE

In the planning stages of the content program at Temple all of the emphasis was, naturally enough, on the needs and goals of the students. In truth there was little discussion about the benefits that such a program might have for the teachers. At the time, several teachers were enthusiastic about teaching the classes but in retrospect we doubt if any of them really appreciated just how satisfying, both professionally and personally, the experience would be. Without exception, the teachers we interviewed have found teaching in the content program to be motivating, challenging, and immensely interesting. Some commented that, while it is difficult at the outset to develop a curriculum and find suitable textbooks, it is nevertheless easier to organize lessons around a content-based curriculum which is thematically focused. Several teachers felt that sharing an interest in the content area with students creates a strong bond which encourages both parties to work harder at their respective responsibilities of teaching and learning. Other teachers remarked that they now find themselves in the dual role of teacher and student as they go back to the books for refresher courses in their chosen subject. They read newspapers and magazines with a new eye, always searching for relevant material to bring into class.

On the other hand, teaching content courses is not without its problems. Finding appropriate textbooks is a difficult task; few include the grammar-based or word study exercises necessary for EFL/ESL students, many are simply too difficult (or too easy) while others do not cover the material teachers would like them to. This means that teachers have to spend a great deal of time on materials development. At the same time, however, most teachers stressed that they looked on this aspect of their teaching as stimulating, challenging and contributing to professional development.

Another problem that several teachers mentioned is that since content courses lend themselves primarily to the practice of reading, listening and writing, other skills such as speaking and grammar are sometimes not fully integrated into the curriculum. Emphasis tends to be on conveying information and making sure that students understand the concepts being taught. It is not that it is difficult to develop grammatical or speaking exercises to accompany the material being taught; it is more a matter of not having the class time to work on these exercises. The administration is, how-

ever, looking at the possibility of increasing student contact hours in the near future, an idea that many teachers are in favor of.

A FINAL WORD

From a personal point of view, teaching content courses has been a rich and rewarding experience. It has added to our interest in ESL/EFL and enhanced our desire to be better teachers. It has changed the nature of our relationship with our students in that we sense a greater responsibility to them than if we were only helping them to develop their linguistic skills. The students look on us as experts in our respective fields (Art History and Psychology) and we put in a great deal of time and energy trying to live up to their expectations. We do not hold advanced degrees in Art History and Psychology but, like many of the IELP content teachers, we have a very strong interest and some background in our content areas. These enable us to present the material which is, for the most part, at an introductory level.

For our students, who are mostly Japanese, content courses are the first contact they have with subjects such as Western Civilization, Psychology, and Art History and the methods of teaching are totally different to anything they experienced in their own high schools where memorization was the key to academic success. Learning is taking on a new meaning for them and new worlds are opening up to them day by day. After a recent exhibition entitled "Two Hundred Years of American Painting," one student confided that he had never been to an art exhibition before but had thoroughly enjoyed both the exhibition and the class report he had to write on it. He had had no idea, he said, that such exhibitions could be so interesting and thought-provoking and he intended to go to them regularly from then on. Teachers get much satisfaction from being instrumental in creating such a thirst for knowledge, and students discover their own need to know more about the world around them. And those, perhaps, are the greatest rewards of all.

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Curriculum Design for Japanese Students in a Foreign Cultural Environment

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The Institution

Canadian International College (CIC) offers a unique and challenging educational experience to Japanese students who have successfully completed high school. At CIC they are invited to enter a learning environment designed to promote: *"Independence of spirit; understanding of other people and cultures; and co-existence, developing from a sense of world community"*. The college commenced operation in April, 1988, and in doing so took an interesting step in the context of international education. The mission statement claims that "CIC is significantly different from other international colleges in its unique goal to educate students to become globalists, as well as culturally informed citizens of their home country." This goal is reached through a comprehensive, integrated program that focuses on the student. Courses emphasize topics of global importance, approached through a study of current issues. As well, field study activities involve students in the culturally diversified communities surrounding the campuses. CIC is much more than a language school: English language learning occurs in a meaningful context, especially designed to meet the needs of the student body.

From its inception, CIC has been guided by the vision of its founder and present chairman, Kazuyuki Takase. Takase postulates that being

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an international person does not mean being able to speak English. Instead, it means that Japanese can establish their own identity as Japanese citizens, can assert their own opinions in the international society of the future, and can coexist in the global environment.

Canada was chosen as a site for the education of this international person for several reasons: the beauty of its natural surroundings; its record of safety and security; the richness and immediacy of its multicultural society; and its reputation for teaching English as a Second Language. With the involvement of Canadian and Japanese partners, campuses were established in Nelson and North Vancouver, British Columbia. Faculty hired represented a diversity of disciplines and professional experiences. Under the leadership of CIC President, Dr. Ian Andrews, it was decided to adopt the language and content approach to instruction based on the current research of Bernard Mohan at the University of British Columbia.The challenge for faculty was to interpret the goals of the mission statement and combine these with the theory of the language and content approach into tangible curriculum documents. In this regard, CIC was able to access the expertise of University of British Columbia and Vancouver School Board programs, which have gained international recognition for their success in developing effective approaches to the teaching of English as a Second Language.

The Programs

Canadian International College offers two and four year programs of study. The first year of both programs is taken at the Nelson campus where the focus is on English language development, and on cultural understanding. The intensive language component is based on modules of levelled classes. Students advance through levels at their own pace, and eventually progress into content-based language courses such as Culture and Conversation, Canadian History and Geography, World Energy and Resources, Human Geography and Mythology. All students take basic computer courses in the first year. After their first year of study, students leave the rural surroundings of Nelson and continue their studies in the culturally diverse urban environment of North Vancouver .

The two year *International Studies Certificate Program is* designed for students who intend to return to the workforce in Japan after their second year of study in Canada. In their second year all students take the following core courses: Culture and Current Issues (understanding of individual and cultural differences, investigation of universal values, and reflection on experiences before returning to Japan.); Experiential Studies (learning in the community through volunteer activities, home visits and taking community-based courses); Conversation Classes and English Exchange (small group oral language development); Computerized Language Laboratory (listening, speaking and reading skills in a language lab setting). As well, students select major areas of study from one of the following: Business Management; Business Practical; Environmental Studies; Bilingual Studies for Interpreters and Translators; and Bilingual Studies for Teachers. In all courses the focus is on experiential learning and content-based language learning.

The four year *International Relations Program* provides students with a broad liberal education as well as depth of knowledge and understanding and skill in their chosen areas of study. This program emphasizes self-discovery, understanding of individual and cultural differences, investigation of universal values, and reflection on experiences and learning over the four years. All courses in the four year program are structured to develop knowledge, academic language and critical thinking in meaningful and natural contexts. In years 2, 3, and 4, students take a number of core courses: Expressive Communication, Experiential Studies, Global Studies, and Computers. Major courses are selected from Business Studies, Bilingual Interpretation and Translation, Bilingual Teaching, and Multicultural and Ethnic Studies. As part of their Experiential Studies course, third year students spend three weeks in Mexico where they study first hand the economic and environmental issues facing developing countries. The College is now in the process of expanding the range of electives offered in the four year program. It is anticipated that electives will include such subjects areas as comparative literature, introductory psychology, cultural studies and journalism.

Curriculum Design

The task of designing curriculum has been an intensive process. All documents have been developed with a view to the unique needs of the students, the globalist goals of the institution, and an instructional commitment to the language and content approach. Many curriculum documents have been written internally by faculty, while some have been developed externally by experts in particular subject areas. Writers are given a guide which outlines the fundamental curriculum principles of the college:

Influences on learning

Each student has his or her own learning style.

Students' learning is affected by their cultural background.

Students' learning is influenced by the new cultural setting.

Language learning

Students learn language by using language to learn meaningful content.

Students learn both oral and written language through a holistic or integrated and systematic process rather than by studying isolated skills.

Students learn language and content by interacting with other students, faculty, staff, and community members in meaningful activities.

Students learn language and content by direct involvement in natural contexts such as social, physical and cultural activities.

The learning process

Students learn by setting goals, taking responsibility, planning and following through on courses of action and dealing with the consequences.

Students learn by taking risks in new learning situations.

Students learn by engaging in a self-evaluation process.

Students develop a global perspective by exploring issues, interacting with people from other cultures and volunteering in community services.

Students develop a global perspective by exploring a breadth of topics, some of which are studied in depth.

Students make greater commitments to learning when they contribute to the development of these learning experiences.

Within these philosophical guidelines, curriculum writers create documents that are intended to balance the needs of the students, the demands of the content, and the rigors of the teaching and learning process.

Language and Content

When students come to a foreign cultural environment to study in a second language, one of their goals is to be able to discuss a variety of interesting and complex topics. They want to talk about current issues and share their native culture. Within CIC curriculum, a content-based approach, the Knowledge Framework, is taken to meet the needs of the institution and of the students. The basic documents used to fashion this curriculum were Mohan (1986), and Early, Thew and Wakefield (1986). For a more detailed explanation of Mohan's Knowledge Framework see Early, 1991, this issue, pp. 179-183.

The CIC curriculum guide provides writers with a specific outline for designing curriculum units. Units should include:

—*Objectives*

—*Knowledge framework* Organization of content, cognitive processes and cognitive academic language foci.

—*Language focus* Identify skill areas, genres, grammatical functions and/or grammatical elements. Also include, where appropriate, interactional and transactional discourse, technical aspects of language and socio-cultural language strategies.

—*Key vocabulary list* (content and structure vocabulary identified in the knowledge framework).

—*key visuals list.*

—*suggested teaching and learning activities.*

—*actual key visuals and student handouts.*

—*references and resources for students and instructors.*

The knowledge framework mentioned in the above list is used as an organizing tool that allows the developer to systematically link content, academic language and thinking skills. Within the area of academic language both structure and content vocabulary are identified, and therefore can be taught. This allows

the instructor to anticipate and be prepared to teach language as it relates to the content being taught. Key visuals play a major role in linking the content to structural and content vocabulary. A sample unit using the content and language approach is illustrated below:

Unit Topic: Developed and Developing Countries.

1. *Objectives.* Students will acquire the information and English language skills necessary for understanding and explaining/discussing the terms "developed" and "developing" when applied to countries in today's world.

2. *Knowledge Framework.*

Focus: Classification and Description.

Thinking Skills: Classifying, Contrasting—understanding the characteristics of, and differences between developing and developed countries.

Language Focus: Words that signal contrast (e.g., however, whereas).

Student Handout #1

DEVELOPED COUNTRIES	DEVELOPING COUNTRIES
high GNP	low GNP
industrialized	low industrialization
literate population	many illiterate
health care good	health care poor
education available	education not always available
high life expectancy	low life expectancy
low infant mortality	high infant mortality
nutritious food	nutritious food scarce
safe drinking water	water not always safe to drink

Student Handout #2

Developed and Developing Countries

There are many types of economic systems operating in the world today. Most countries are somehow involved in trade with other countries. However, some countries are rich or wealthy, while other remain poor.

Those countries that are wealthy are called *developed countries.* The characteristics of developed countries are: a high Gross National Product; advanced levels of industrialization and technology; a literate population; and high quality health care and education. Also, life expectancy is high (about 73 in the world's wealthiest nations), and infant mortality is low. That is, only about 2 babies die ar birth. In developed countries there is nutritious food available for the population, and the water is safe to drink. Examples of developed countries are Japan, Switzerland, Sweden, Canada, and the USA.

Developing countries are those that are poor when compared to developed countries. Sometimes poorer countries are called "underdeveloped", but scholars now prefer to use developing because it gives a sense of hope and progress; Developing countries have a low Gross National Product, and industry and technology are not advanced. Health care and education are not of a high standard. Often, many people are illiterate, and infant mortality is high. In some countries, as many as 12 babies in every 100 die at birth. People are often so poor that they are hungry, and the water is not always safe to drink. Examples of developing countries are India, Niger and Angola.

Student Handout #3

Words of Contrast

A variety of words and constructions are used to signal contrast. The most common contrast word is *but*. Two combining words that suggest contrast are *whereas* and *while*. A clause containing a combining word can take either the first (see 1 below), or the second (see 2 and 3 below) position in the sentence:

1. *While* Japan is a developed country, China is a developing country.
2. China is a developing country *while* Japan is a developed country.
3. China is a developing country, *whereas* Japan is a developed country.

Clauses with combining words of contrast are not usually set off with a comma when they are in the second position as in 2 above. However, clauses that contain wh*ereas* usually are.

Contrast can also be indicated by noncombining signals such as *however, on the other hand, in contrast, on the contrary*. A clause containing a noncombining signal is not joined to the preceding clause with a comma; it is separated by a period or a semicolon. Noncombining words of contrast may take several positions in the sentence.

4. Sweden has good health care, *however*, India does not.
5. Sweden has good health care; *however*, India does not.
6. Sweden has good health care. India, *on the other hand*, has poor health care.

Student Handout #4

Exercise Sheet

1. In this exercise you are given content cues which suggest sentences of contrast about developed and developing countries. Write sentences using these cues and the contrast words indicated.

Content	Contrast word
industrialized	whereas
Canada is an industrialized country whereas Niger is not.	
low infant mortality	in contrast
illiterate population	however
nutritious food	on the contrary
high GNP	whereas

2. Write a short paragraph (5 sentences) introducing the concepts of developed and developing countries. Use 3 sentences of contrast to explain the concept. Conclude with a summary sentence and try to use a variety of contrast signals in your writing.

3. *Key Vocabulary:*

developed	life expectancy	whereas
developing	gross national product	however
literate	industrialization	contrast
illiterate	technology	contrary
literacy		

4. *Key Visual:* List of the characteristics of developed and developing countries. (As in Student Handout #1 above).

5. *Strategies for Teaching and Learning:*

a. Building Background Knowledge: Introducing the terms "developed" and "developing." Instructor and students build a concept map for each term. This might be

a brainstorming exercise, or completely instructor-led, depending upon the degree of student background knowledge.

b. Review of the Key Visual: This could be done on an overhead, and students could copy information into their notes.

c. Pre-reading activity: Students work in small groups to design descriptive paragraphs for developed and developing countries, based on the information summarized in the Key Visual and Student Handout #1. Students then do the paired Reading Activities associated with Student Handout #2.

d. Language Focus: Contrasting. Teaching should preview the ideas outlined on the Student Handout #3 and learning activities should include students reading through the Handout.

e. Following Strategy 4, students should engage in the exercises in Handout #4.

f. Homework and follow-up activities could include students writing a paragraph comparing the life of teenagers in developed and developing countries.

This sample unit illustrates the integration of language with content learning. It is a structured approach to learning, which has gained the support of CIC faculty because of its effectiveness in increasing English language skills as well as increasing the student's knowledge in targeted areas.

Measuring Success

The success of an institution such as CIC can be measured in many ways. Board members and administrators are heartened to see enrollment figures increasing. (There are currently 265 students on the Nelson Campus, and 303 in North Vancouver). The college operates a job placement program, and over the past summer, 95% of students who actively sought positions for April 92 obtained positions with Japanese companies. Many companies seek out CIC graduates. Prospective employers comment that CIC graduates are confident in manner, particularly when compared to their peers who have graduated from Japanese universities. They observe students to have informed opinions on world affairs, and to be fluent in their expression of these opinions. Some companies use native speakers to interview applicants in English. In this scenario, CIC students have gained a reputation for having a high level of oral and written English skills.

Canadian International College has moved through the initial stage of curriculum design. Now programs are being implemented, with a view to structured evaluation in the near future. Evaluation procedures in current use include student surveys which solicit critical feedback from present students, as well as from alumni. These surveys have focussed on programs, and what students view as the strengths and weaknesses of CIC courses. Evaluation comments are taken seriously, and where possible, appropriate action is taken. Student progress in courses is measured by the use of instructor-prepared written and oral tests. All students are interviewed and kept abreast of their standing in the programs.

English language learning is measured by standardized proficiency and achievement tests such as the SLEP (Secondary Level English Proficiency Test) and OTESOL (Ontario Test of English as a Second Language). As well, faculty have adapted placement tests used at other institutions, and are working to develop instruments that will effectively evaluate knowledge of language, as well as content-based knowledge.

The simultaneous teaching of language and content was a natural choice for Canadian International College where these learning dimensions are equally valued. Presently there is optimism among the major stakeholders about the quality and success of this unique educational opportunity for Japanese students abroad.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Toward Non–Essentialist Sociolinguistics

Karl Janicki
Mouton de Gruyter, 1990.

Reviewed by Robert O'Neill

> 'Objective', 'true', 'fair', are words of large content, their uses are many, their edges often blurred. Ambiguities and confusions are always possible and often dangerous. Nevertheless such terms do possess meanings, which may, indeed, be fluid but stay within limits recognised by normal usage, and refer to standards commonly accepted by those who work in relevant fields, and that not merely within one generation or society, but across large stretches of time and space.
>
> Isaiah Berlin

The Trap of Infinite Regress

What is the value of precise definitions, for example of words like "freedom" "equality" "style" or "speech community"? How do we learn the concepts such words refer to? How useful is it to attempt to define exactly where the boundaries of one discipline end and those of another begin?

These are some of the things that Mr Janicki deals with in his ambitious book. His goal is nothing less than to liberate us from a habit regarded by some as essential to clear thought and by others as despotic and destructive. It is a habit associated with the name of Aristotle. It is characterised by Karl Popper and others as "essentialism," the belief that words and concepts derive meaning and content ultimately from essences or innate ideas. Janicki refers frequently not only to Popper but—inevitably, given the nature of his book—to Alfred Korzybski (1933) and S.I. Hayakawa (1939).

This insistence on precise definitions leads easily to the trap of "infinite regress." We define one term by reference to another, which in turn has to be defined precisely, and so on. This demand for precision, *if pursued relentlessly and exclusively*, can stifle not only intellectual debate but the development of knowledge itself. Geoffrey Leech (1974) points out the futility of such an approach in his classic book on semantics:

> A physicist does not have to define notions like 'time', 'heat', 'colour', 'atom' before he starts investigating their properties. Rather, definitions, if they are needed, emerge from the study itself.

What is Non–Essentialism?

Janicki finds the habit of believing in such definitions and insisting on them distressingly wide-spread throughout his own discipline of sociolinguistics. He calls it "creeping essentialism" and attempts to counter it through a series of non-essentialist propositions.

- If there is one feature more than any other that is central to language and what we understand by it, it must be meaning. Meaning depends primarily on "a clearly cognitive set of conceptualizations" or categories.
- The categories central to meaning are based on mental images and mental descriptions which are non–discrete or "fuzzy"; that is to say, not always clearly, distinctly separated from each other.

Robert O'Neill has been an EFL teacher for over 30 years. He is author of many English language teaching courses and materials, including The Kernel Series *and* The Lost Secret. *His article "What Did Isadora Duncan and Einstein Have in Common?" appeared in* Cross Currents *17(1).*

- It is this fuzziness that permits creativity in language. It is because categories and the boundaries between them are flexible that we can invent new words and concepts or use old ones in innovative ways.
- Despite this fuzziness we have a strong tendency to "idealize" our categories, as if the fuzziness did not exist. What is more, we tend to invest many of the most important words we use with a strong "axiological load," or a "good–bad" polarity.
- Luckily, however, our concepts and categories do not remain stable. We constantly revise and modify them. As a result, we may move a particular word or concept associated with it from the "bad" to the "good" part of the continium.
- We cannot claim that there is one particular "objective" meaning of a word. The distinction between denotative and connotative meaning ought, therefore, to be discarded.
- Objective knowledge is impossible. So, therefore, is objective truth.

Truth and Correspondences

As an example of the innate fuzziness of the semantic categories we use every day, Janicki offers the following:

> In order to better illustrate the point, let me only refer to various modern pieces of furniture which may serve as 'sitting on objects'. Are they chairs or are they not? Let me also mention a hanging beads curtain; is it a door or is it not a door? Think also of an invalid's vehicle, a three–wheeler, with a top roof, and motorcycle type steering equipment. Is it a car or is it not a car? Also, are toy guns just toys or both toys and guns? Is a gun in the form of a cigarette lighter (à la James Bond) a gun or a cigarette lighter?

This passage illustrates, for me at least, both the strengths and weaknesses of Janicki's book. He does not hide behind opaque abstractions but constantly offers clear examples related to practical problems in order to make his points. However, in his question about guns, he seems to ignore something essential (in the non–Aristotelian sense) about the way we classify things. A gun that looks like a cigarette lighter which is used to light cigarettes is a cigarette lighter. Something that looks like a cigarette lighter but fires bullets is a gun. Even children know that and are not at all confused by apparent likeness which do not reveal the *use* of an object. (This failure to consider the way people *use* things and words rather than they way they define them is something I will return to later.) Moreover, what he leaves unsaid about issues like the possibility of objective truth is often far more significant than what he actually says. He seems to equate it with a "God's Eye View" of truth. But, as he surely knows, Kant and many others have insisted that objective truth or knowledge is a purely human and inevitably flawed construct. However it is something very different from the kind of knowledge Janicki appears to have in mind when he says this:

> Prototype–oriented linguistic's stance on 'truth' is that there is no objective, absolute or unconditional truth. Any truth is always relative to the conceptual system of the individual. The system is *always* (author's italics) resorted to when the understanding of a statement is retrieved, and when the truth or falsity of a statement is established.

This is true only if you accept an impossible, "essentialist" definition of "objective"—that it is the same as *absolute* and *unconditional knowledge*. Is this what people mean when they talk about objective standards or objective knowledge in scholarly discussions? Kant did not think so. Neither does Isaiah Berlin. I doubt if anyone who seriously thinks about how they use the word, as opposed to how they might define it unthinkingly and casually, thinks it means this.

Part of the process of discovering what is sometimes called objective truth involves trying to corroborate or disprove statements by finding what correspondences there are when we view the statement from different subjective perspectives. To take a topical example, if a man is accused of sexual harassment, we rely not only on the testimony of his accuser but on that of other people who had relevant experience at the relevant time. Did the accuser ever report or complain about the harassment at the time it was alleged to occur? Did anyone else ever observe the harassment? If so, what exactly did they see? And so on.

Courts of law, of course, Janicki might ar-

gue, do not and cannot pretend to deal in "objective truths"—if they did, there would be no question of appeal. Yet courts of law are supposed to dispense *justice*, which is in some ways even more majestic a notion than objective truth, and justice is founded on the notion that even if the law itself is not above revision and improvement, there are at least some fair, reasonably objective standards of determining what did or did not happen in a particular case. There are also times when we and the law must admit that we simply cannot say what is the truth, let alone judge it objectively. That, however, does not mean that there are *never* times when we can do so.

The Three Worlds Again

I find Janicki's failure to take up this issue particularly perplexing because he refers so often to Popper (1966) and sometimes explicitly to Popper's metaphor of the "Three Worlds." Perhaps he believes that everyone is by now so familiar with the distinction between World One and Worlds Two and Three that it is unnecessary to remind his readers more than once that there are things about which fairly truthful statements can be said. Do I need a theory of ballistics to say that if I aim a loaded revolver at my head and shoot I will probably kill myself? Do I need a theory of meaning to say that although the distinction between "adult" and "teenager" in English can be difficult to define precisely, I am not a teenager any more? And is it only a scientist who can say that it is an objective fact that water boils at 100 degrees centigrade and that when it does so, it forms steam? Centigrade is definitely a relative way to measure things, depending on a theory, but does that make it less objective?

Perhaps Janicki feels that since we cannot understand the natural phenomena of World One directly, but only through our perceptions (World Two) which are inevitably shaped to some extent by our theories and beliefs (World Three), there is no point in our talking about the things in World One as if they existed independently from us in the other two worlds. But this is to fall into a philosophical fallacy tainted by the very "essentialism" Janicki opposes. This fallacy argues that since we cannot know the word directly, without the aid of our senses and the distortions they involve, we cannot know it at all. This fallacy ignores not only that we can know objectively that things exist without knowing them directly but also the role of language as a passport out of our own limited, subjective experience.

Language and Intersubjectivity

Language offers us a way not only to reflect critically on our own perceptions but also a means of comparing our perceptions with those of other observers. This is what is meant by *intersubjectivity*. Although it is not the same as objective knowledge, it is yet another variety of experience and a means of insight utterly different from subjective experience. It is worth quoting Leech in this respect. He begins by saying that

> ...even the most well-founded theories are tentative and provisional; they are (to use another formulation of Popper's) 'bold conjectures'. (as quoted by Janicki, p. 60)

He then lists "desiderata" for scientific statements, among them, completeness, simplicity, falsifiability, and the fact that they should be "stronger" (i.e. account for more of the data than competing theories). Then he says that the scientific statements

> ...should be testable by OBJECTIVE (or rather INTERSUBJECTIVE) means in the sense that the basic statements derived from it may be independently checked by different observers. (italics and upper-case letters the author's)

It is through intersubjective analysis that we try to discover not only what a word means to us as individuals but what it means generally to other people. If, for example, ninety-seven out of a hundred native-speakers agree that words like "wop" "kike," "spick" and "nigger" are always abusive in intent but that words like "English" "Jewish" "Hispanic" and "Afro-American" are at least far more neutral, would Janicki still say that there is nothing objective to be said about which words are less likely to be considered insulting?

Denotative and Connotative Meaning

I also feel that Janicki shows too little interest in intersubjectivity when he says:

> One of the fundamental claims of prototype-oriented linguistics pertinent to

> meaning is that the distinction between denotative and connotative meaning is not well-founded and should thus be discarded. Moreover, roughly, meaning is understood as equivalent to concept, any objectivist description of which is not possible, and in fact involves a wrong way of looking at the world.

I find the argument myopic. It seems to be saying that every word we use is so impregnated by the associations each individual's private experience gives to it that no one particular definition can be said to be central to it. It ignores the public dimension of words, the fact that we know they are used by other people in certain ways—that they refer, among other things, to certain commonly accepted concepts and that we are too limited, too blinded by our own subjective associations for these particular meanings to co-exist in our minds with the other meanings we may attribute to them. Does Mr Janicki think the following definition is seriously misleading?

> **male** *adj.* n 1 (of) the sex that does not give birth to young: a male monkey 2 (suitable to or typical of this sex, rather than the female sex (a male voice). (Longman Active Study Dictionary, 1983)

The first definition is definitely denotative. The second leads us—gently—to an understanding of some of the connotations the word has. These include meanings like "rapist," "out of touch with ones feelings," and so on. Would even the most committed radical feminist argue that the first definition has no place in a dictionary? The point is not whether one definition is better than the other but whether any theory of meaning can operate successfully if it refuses to take into account the difference between at least these two types of meaning. It *can* be argued that some words have such a high affective content that it is probably misleading to pretend they can denote anything. Again, I find Leech illuminating in this respect. He cites three words, *typewriter*, *America*, and *fascist*. The first is relatively easy to define, and has little if any connotative meaning. The second word has more affective and connotative meaning than the first, and the third still more. But Janicki wants to discard the distinction for all and not just some words.

Hammers and Shared Practices

Not long ago I happened to be reading an interview between Hubert Dreyfus and Bryan Magee. They were talking about Karl Heidegger. Dreyfus said this:

> Philosophers since Descartes had been trying to prove the existence of the world. Kant said that it was a scandal that no one had successfully done it. Heidegger in *Being and Time* retorts: The scandal is that philosophers keep trying to prove the existence of the external world, as if we were stuck with some *internal* world and couldn't get out. (Magee, 1987, p. 260)

Dreyfus refers to Heidegger's metaphor of a hammer (Kant used a very similar metaphor). Hammers are distinguished not only by their external appearance or even by our previous experience of them. They are defined and categorized also by the way we and other people *use* them. Hammers are things we grip in certain ways and pound on other objects with. Words are not only mental images but tokens of *shared practices*. We share the images and practices with a community. We often disagree when we talk about definitions but rarely do so when we discuss actual usage. Ask two native speakers to define *cost* and *value*, and they will probably disagree. But ask them to decide which word to use in contrasting examples, and they will show startling agreement. Usage cannot be divorced from meaning. I would argue that the way we actually use words is informed by a deeper sense of meaning than is the way we define them

Essentialism In Language Teaching

If essentialists are to be found in the field of sociolinguistics, they also abound in language teaching. They are the teachers who believe they have found the one and only way to teach. They may ask "What is a good student-centred teacher?" and then recite a list of essential characteristics. Or they may be adherents of "The Silent Way" who never answer "What-is questions." Instead they behave as if there were an essential definition somewhere but that it cannot be divulged until the questioner is more enlightened.

The point is that you do not have to argue about precise definitions to be an essentialist. It is enough simply to believe that there is an

"essential way" which corresponds to an essential truth about good teaching. Then you can assume an air of elusive and portentous profundity whenever someone asks you to explain your method and behave as if it is the questioner's duty to discover the explanation without any help from you.

Both kinds of essentialism have a catastrophic effect upon people. They seem to lose all interest in any open intellectual inquiry (which might reveal the shallowness of their own conviction) and become smug and inflexible. They carry around with them a mental check-list of "desirable characteristics" of "the good teacher" and when they actually observe a teacher, they see everything through the prism of the check-list. The observer does not observe what teachers actually do but only whether they satisfiy the narrow requirements of the check-list.

Another kind of essentialism also distorts teacher's perceptions of their roles especially in countries like Japan. Some native-speaker English teachers seem to believe that they possess essential truths about culture and language and that it is their mission to liberate their Japanese students from naïve and mistaken beliefs.

Some radical feminists, to take only one example, appear convinced that the Japanese housewives in their conversation courses need to be told "the truth" about their oppression—that there is, in fact, only one truth about the "facts." This approach could be transformed by a more proto-typical or non-essentialist attitude because the teacher would then feel free to state her own views on gender relationships in Japan but would clearly indicate to her class that she is talking about how she sees things from her own Western perspective. This invites discussion and a free exchange of views whereas the essentialist approach stifles it. The non-essentialist approach transforms the teacher's role from preacher—or even demagogue—into a participant in a dialogue among equals.

Facts and Theories

Mr Janicki gives many examples of people quarrelling about definitions, and argues that this is symptomatic of a muddle-headedness caused by essentialism. But he ignores the fact that they actually use these words with remarkable agreement about what they mean in ordinary sentences. For example, if two sociolinguists of differering viewpoints argue, one may insist that all "facts" are so "theory-impregnated" that they cannot be called "facts" at all. A dispute over definitions may ensue. Does this mean that the two socio-linguists do not agree on the meaning of "fact" and "theory" elsewhere? Nobody suggested a better answer than did Isaiah Berlin.

> We do distinguish facts, not indeed sharply from the valuations which enter into their very texture, but from interpretations of them; the borderline may not be distinct, but if I say that Stalin is dead and General Franco still alive, my statement may be accurate or mistaken, but nobody in his senses could, as words are used, take me to be advancing a theory or interpretation. But if I say that Stalin exterminated a great many peasant proprietors because in his infancy he had been swaddled by his nurse, and this made him aggressive, while General Franco had not done so because he did not go through this kind of experience, no one but a very naïve student of the social sciences would take me to be asserting a fact... (p. 98)

Janicki cites many examples in his book in which scholars at conferences talk about how difficult it is to give infallible definitions of things like "language," "dialect," "speech community," and "productive" as opposed to "receptive competence." He sees in them the phantom of "creeping essentialism," a deadly fallacy generated by a mistaken view of the world. I see in them sometimes rhetorical devices that speakers use to give themselves time to think or simply to indicate that they have nothing very profound or original to say about the subject. At other times I see something far more serious, but it has nothing to do with Aristotle or definitions. It has to do with *interests*. Scholars will sometimes defend to the death a particular definition or interpretation of—let us say—the proper area that sociolinguistics should be concerned with, and the reason they do so is because their professional interests, their own research, their own chances of promotion and professional reward are more likely to be furthered by this interpretation.

Nevertheless, I read Janicki's book always with interest if occasionally with intense disagreement. Part of the interest is due to the variety of practical issues he addresses. And even when I disagreed, I was led to other practical issues. For example, the way we use words rather than the way we define them is a practical issue in foreign language teaching. Too often, the focus in vocabulary teaching is on the dictionary definition of a word. The shared practices, for example, the collocations one word shares with another—are ignored. Words like "a walk" are explained to German students with no mention of the fact that we say "to go for" rather than "make," as would be the case in German. The word "to have" is defined as meaning "to possess" but too little time or none at all is given to all the things one can "have" in English but not always or even usually in other languages, like a shower in the morning, a good time, tea for two, love affairs, pains and nightmares.

Janicki also suggests other ideas that are as useful in language teaching as they are in sociolinguistics. He suggests that whenever possible, we use "right–to–left" definitions and explanations rather than "left–to–right." "Left–to–right" is the classic kind of essentialist definition; for instance, "*sociolinguistics is the study of the effects of social and cultural factors within a language community upon its language patterns*." "Right–to–left" reverses this;—"*when you study the effects of social and cultural factors within a language community you are engaging in sociolinguistics*." Consider the difference between these two versions of a common rule in English.

- *'The Present Simple is used to refer to habits and other actions that regularly occur but which are not occurring at the moment of speaking'*
- *'When you want to refer to habits and other things you do at different times in the present but which you are not doing as you speak, use the Present Simple'.*

The first "rule" which is articulated in a left–to–right manner immediately suggests to any knowledgeable user of English more exceptions than examples that conform to it. What about events that occur and are over before a speaker can refer to them, as in a sports commentary ("Montana rolls out left. He throws. Rice has it. Touchdown!")? Yet the right–to–left version of the rule sounds more like a practical instruction. The right-to-left version is not as general; it does not cover all the possible uses of the Present Simple, but it is easier to grasp and more accurate, if more limited in its application.

The Virtues of Disagreement

Books that offer ideas we disagree with can be more valuable than those that confirm what we thought we already knew. When we try to discover why we disagree, we are often forced to re-examine our own casual beliefs. This is the least of the reasons why I personally find Janicki's book valuable. When I disagree with him—at times vehemently—it is less because of what he says and more because of what he does not say, as in the case of the possibility of objective knowledge. In a field like language teaching, with its moods, fashions and tendencies to become embedded in a swamp of jargon that conceals rather than reveals the real issues that confront us, it is essential to understand what we can say with reasonable objectivity and what we cannot. Objective knowledge—in its frail human sense—is possible only when individuals share their perspectives and establish rules not only about what is knowable but about the ways in which we can describe to each other what we think we know. Even Aristotle believed that we can know concrete and animate things only through our experience. What is knowable objectively through that experience may be precious little, but it remains precious all the same.

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Team Teaching

Sheila Brumby & Minoru Wada.
Longman, 1990.

Reviewed by Jim Kahny

Team Teaching, by Sheila Brumby and Minoru Wada, was written to help AETs (Assistant English Teachers) and JTEs (Japanese Teachers of English) improve their working relationships. But how can the teachers who most need help be persuaded to read it? The answer might be for administrators to make it required reading for all participants in the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program and other team-teaching programs in Japan. Teachers new to team teaching in Japan and those experiencing difficulties in their team-teaching situations will find this book useful in that it provides them with a framework for discussing team-teaching issues with their teaching partners.

Perhaps the book's greatest contribution to team teaching in Japan is two questionnaires designed to give teachers realistic expectations of a team-teaching experience. The first questionnaire is for the JTE who is asked to assess his or her own feelings about working with a foreign teacher. Below are some sample questions. (JTE should answer True or False.)

____A lesson or series of lessons with an AET would make it difficult to prepare the students for their exams.
____I don't have much spare time and I don't want to do any extra work. (e.g. 2 or 3 hours with an AET.)
____ The other teachers in the school are not interested in meeting or talking to an AET. (pp. 6–7)

The JTE is also prompted to consider that the AET may have certain expectations about the job. Is the JTE aware of the following expectations that an AET might have? (JTE should answer Yes or No.)

____The JTE and I will have some time to work together to plan lessons.
____Somebody will ensure that I am kept informed of all school events and will be there to answer any questions I have about the school system.
____Some students will probably be better at English than others and these students will be happy to give their opinions and start discussions going. (pp. 6-7)

The second questionnaire is for the AET. Is the AET aware of the following? (AET should answer Yes or No.)

____Some JTEs feel threatened by having a foreigner in the classroom. They did not choose to have you there.
____The students are not used to speaking out and answering questions. They do not like to stand out from their peers.
____You may not be accepted as a professional in terms of teaching even if you are qualified. (pp. 7-8)

And there's even a short lesson in cross-cultural awareness for the AET. (AET should answer True or False.)

____If there is a problem I believe in getting it out into the open and arguing it through with the people concerned.
____If somebody says 'Hai' or that something is all right, I take that to mean agreement.
____I expect to make at least a few Japanese friends fairly quickly from among my colleagues.

As one reads through the two questionnaires in their entirety one wonders if the concept of team teaching in Japan is nothing short of a collision of worlds. The authors point out that if there are too many 'True' and 'No' answers teachers may need to discuss their concerns with their teaching partners and even modify their own expectations (pp. 70-71). By reaching a mutual understanding on job expectations, the JTE and AET can forge a working relationship that both will find rewarding.

Team Teaching also contains practical tips for the classroom including a look at teachers' roles. The authors assume that teachers will

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Jim Kahny is the supervisor of LIOJ's Team-Teaching Program.

have agreed on the principle of equal and meaningful participation by both teachers; they rightly suggest that pronunciation is not the exclusive domain of the AET.

In subsequent units, the authors discuss basic lesson-plan preparation. They note that teachers are faced with the difficult task of concocting communicative objectives based on the Monbusho (Ministry of Education) texts. An extract from one of these texts, accompanied by possible communicative objectives for it, is presented. Also provided is a format for the JTE and AET to discuss text-based lesson objectives.

Once the teachers agree upon lesson objectives, they can then decide how best to achieve those objectives using standard lesson-plan sequencing. There is a unit by unit examination of different stages of a lesson: the presentation stage (teachers introduce new language); the practice stage (students practice the language in a controlled manner); the production stage (students produce the language in a less-guided manner) (p. 33).

The production stage should be planned first. As teachers consider the production stage they should keep in mind why people communicate in the real world and try to create a 'real-life' reason for communication (p. 34). Upon deciding what they want the students to be able to do with the language, they can then organize a lesson plan that incorporates the introduction and practice of new language. When students are comfortable using the language in a controlled setting, they can then apply it in a more communicative, 'real-life' situation. T*eam Teaching* provides follow-up activities as a format for the JTE and AET to discuss the various stages of lesson planning.

Many of the book's suggestions for lesson planning are applicable not only to the team-teaching context, but also to single-teacher classes.

In the final unit, the authors briefly discuss some of the mechanics involved in planning a one-shot visit. There is also a glossary of basic ELT terminology at the end of the book which teachers will find helpful when discussing lessons.

There are two major shortcomings that one wouldn't expect from a book entitled *Team Teaching*. The first is the limited discussion on the issues of class management and student discipline. These are among the most difficult and sensitive issues facing JTEs and AETs. The Japanese way of responding to disruptive students can be very different from the way non-Japanese handle the situation. Ideally, if teachers follow the authors' tips and plan interesting lessons, students will enthusiastically participate in class. In the real world, however, students are not always well-behaved, and disruptive students can sometimes derail even the best-planned lessons. However, if the open communication that the book promotes is established between the JTE and the AET, they can reach an understanding, if not necessarily a solution, on these issues, too.

The second, and perhaps the more important, omission is that the book does not make a forceful case for team teaching itself in Japanese schools. In his preface to the book, Wada discusses why team teaching began in Japan, and cites a few of the benefits of team teaching. The benefits listed—mainly that team teaching makes English classes more communicative—only scratch the surface. A number of people, both program participants and non-participants, remain unconvinced that two teachers in a class are better than one. There are, in fact, many reasons (behavioral, linguistic, practical, professional, and cross-cultural) why the whole is greater than the sum of the parts and team teaching has a valid place in Japanese schools. The reader won't find them in *Team Teaching*.

Monbusho itself should soon provide program participants with information like that found in *Team Teaching* and encourage JTEs and AETs to discuss with each other the various aspects of their working relationships. For now, *Team Teaching* fills a need for JTEs and AETs and should be read by participants in team-teaching programs in Japan.

The Cambridge Skills for Fluency. *Adrian Doff, Editor. Cambridge University Press, 1991.*

Reviewed by Scott Jarrett

The Cambridge Skills for Fluency series comprises four levels, pre-intermediate through upper intermediate. Each level consists of four books: Reading; Writing; Speaking; and Listening. The latter two are supplemented by audio cassette tapes. This review will focus on Level One, whose authors are Simon Greenall and Diana Pye (*Reading 1*), Andrew Littlejohn (*Writing 1*), Joanne Collie and Stephen Slater (*Speaking 1*), and Adrian Doff and Carolyn Becket (*Listening 1*).

Although the books share some features, each can be used independently of or in concert with the others. Common to each (from front to back) are a map of the book, twenty units of lessons, an answer key or tapescript, and notes to the teacher. The maps are especially useful, giving the teacher a quick, easily understood overview of the contents, unit by unit. Combined with the notes to the teacher, they provide an adequate guide to using the series. There is no teacher's book.

The books are quite slim, none more than a hundred pages, but that is deceptive, for each is packed with activities that can be used in any order the teacher wishes. Even though the activities in the last units are somewhat more difficult than those in the first, their modular nature allows them to be plucked out and used as needed. The teacher, therefore, can use any or all of the activities in a unit and any or all units in the book, either in order or as desired. Many of the activities are designed to be done in pairs, and some are group activities, but most can be done individually.

The materials run the gamut from the delightfully quirky to the mundane. An example of the former is a unit in *Reading 1* that examines the lyrics of "Tom's Diner," a song by Suzanne Vega. The latter is exemplified by a unit in the same book entitled simply "Dads." This unit explores the roles of fathers and is rather ethnocentric, probably a bit confusing for Asian readers whose fathers are quite unlike those described. This is the exception rather than the rule, however, and teacher and student alike will find plenty of stimulating and challenging material within the pages of these books.

The tapes that accompany *Listening 1* and *Speaking 1* are of good quality, and the speech is authentic, with pauses, false starts, and the occasional unfinished sentence thrown in for good measure. The *Listening 1* tape contains a description of a Japanese bath which should be good for a chuckle in the Japanese EFL market. *Speaking 1* concludes with a retrospective assessment of the book called "What did you think of this book?" It guides the student through an evaluation of the book, then provides an outline of an evaluative letter which the students can complete and send to the authors.

This series can be utilized either as the primary resource for a course or as supplemental material for whatever resource the teacher happens to be using. I am inclined toward the latter use as the great variety of activities lends itself to just such an application. I recommend that teachers examine the *Cambridge Skills for Fluency* series for there is something here for everyone, and some will find that there is quite a gold mine between the pages of these volumes.

Literature. Alan Duff & Alan Maley. Oxford University Press, 1990.

Reviewed by Elizabeth King

Literature, one volume in Oxford's—"Resource Books for Teachers" series, presents its unassuming title on an obscure green notebook cover. Thus it could too easily be overlooked by teachers unfamiliar with the consistently rich ideas of authors Alan Duff and Alan Maley. A second glance reveals a well-organized manual of procedures for using literary texts in the language classroom, with a thoughtfully selected variety of textual material as models.

A clear rationale is outlined by the authors in defense of what some conventionalists might regard as an iconoclastic use of literature. The book seeks to do away with the traditional

notion that literary texts must be approached with an attitude of awe and reverence, which more often has served to inspire trepidation in the mind of the student. As the authors remind us, the creation itself of most literature is more often a down-to-earth labor reflecting on an ordinary world.

Literary texts tend to be substantial, or "non-trivial", as opposed to much of the material written specifically for language study. Writers choose topics because "they are concerned enough to write about them"; hence, the "genuine feeling" of literary texts. The rationale for using literature as the basis for student interaction is its likelihood of eliciting a personal response from students, of connecting with and validating their own rich life experience. Without this connection, meaningful discussion can hardly take place. The book is divided into four sections, the first of which uses short texts and is designed to prepare teachers and students for new uses of literature in the language class. Longer texts are presented in sections two and three, first to demonstrate a variety of approaches, and, in section three, mainly as catalysts for discussion. The fourth and final section encourages the use of literature to focus on such specific language points as grammar, vocabulary, listening skills, summary and dialogue writing, and finally the use of translation as a tool for open discussion. Those "modernists" who reject translation as an archaic technique might do well to experiment with new approaches. Students may take the challenge of translation with enthusiasm and interest, welcoming the opportunity to draw on their first-language ability and restoring their confidence in their linguistic ability which is often hidden or doubted in struggles with a second language. In addition, discussions of translation attempts tend to bring up interesting cultural contrasts and much-needed humor which can be shared by all with a common first language.

Finally, and the best is last, with a farsighted view, the appendix addresses a tendency in the language-teaching profession to grasp a specific piece of material and attempt to 'plug it in' directly in one's classroom without consideration for long-term planning. Ten general procedures for using literary texts to various ends are reiterated, and cross-referenced to specific exercises in the book. Some of these include reduction of a text, expansion (adding events, background, grammatical items, interior monologue), comparison and contrast of two texts with related themes, and analysis, including translation. Rather than confining the user to the authors' choices of material, the procedural outlines elevate the book to pose a challenge to the responsible teacher: that of integrating the procedures into a well-designed course which considers the content to be taught, and an assessment of the abilities and preferences, and needs of one's own class.

Literature is a "resource" book in the best sense of the word. As a relief from the familiar collections of isolated classroom gimmicks designed to entertain the student and give the teacher a break from lesson planning, the book provides real resources aimed at teacher development. While the lessons are complete in themselves with carefully selected texts, the emphasis is on the procedures. The activities themselves address crucial skills: logical thinking and analysis, expression of opinions, summary writing, vocabulary development, and most important, connecting curriculum with personal experience.

If criticism is in order, it might be noted that the works selected seem to show an overwhelming preference for British writers, though this is admittedly the prerogative of the authors, and might serve to further encourage teachers to select their own variety of materials. Perhaps, as well, the writers protest more than necessary in defending their "unholy" uses of literature, though if their arguments encourage even a few stuffy pedagogues to try a new approach, then these protests are in order. It is more likely, however, that this book will be welcomed and enjoyed by many innovative and enthusiastic teachers looking for ways to bring out and enrich their students' experience by interaction and discussion of ideas from literature.

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

American Association of Applied Linguistics Annual Meeting. February 28 - March 2, 1992. Seattle, Washington.Contact: AAAL 1992 Program Committee 1325 18th St., Washington, D.C. 20036-6501. FAX: (217) 224-2223.

TESOL 26th Annual Convention & Exposition. March 3-7, 1992. Meetings will be held in the Vancouver Convention & Trade Center, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada. Contact: TESOL, 1600 Cameron St., Suite 300, Alexandria, Virginia 22314, U.S.A. Tel: (703) 836-0774. FAX: (703)-836-7864.

National Council of Teachers of English Conference on College Composition. March 19-21, 1992. Cincinnati, Ohio. Contact: NCTE, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801.

Michigan State University. 12th Annual Second Language Research Forum. April 2-5, 1992. *Second Language Acquisition: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*, East Lansing, Michigan. Contact: India Plough, Conference Chair, English Language Center, 1 Center for International Programs, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824. Tel: (517) 353-0800. FAX: (517) 336-1149.

IATEFL. April 10-13, 1992. *Language World: International Conference for Teachers of all Languages*. Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh, Scotland. Contact: ALL, 16 Regent Place, Rugby CV21 2PN, United Kingdom. Tel: 0788-546443. FAX: 0788-544149.

RELC Regional Seminar on Language Teacher Education in a Fast-Changing World. April 20-23, 1992. SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, Singapore. Participants will survey recent developments in language teacher education, discuss new and established models of language teacher education, and examine how new trends in language teaching theory and methodology will affect the preparation of language teachers in Southeast Asia. Contact: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025. Tel: (65) 737-9044. FAX: (65) 734-2753

Summer Program for the Development of Intercultural Coursework at Colleges and Universities. July 15-24, 1992. The Institute of Culture and Communication, East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii. The workshop is for college and university faculty who wish to develop courses in intercultural and international topics. Participants will examine possible texts, discuss issues with authors of texts currently used in intercultural courses and become familiar with concepts that can be integrated into various courses. Courses can be developed in the social and behavioral sciences, language and culture, and international management. Contact: Richard Brislin, Institute of Culture and Communication, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, U.S.A. Tel: (808) 944-7666. FAX: (808) 944-7970.

24th Annual International Summer Workshop for Teachers of English. August 9-14, 1992. Language Institute of Japan. The workshop will include over 60 presentations, language classes in English , and various social and cultural activities. Contact: LIOJ, Asia Center, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara-shi, Kanagawa-ken 250, Japan. Tel: 0465-23-1677.

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A E HIEKE (USA), Spoken language phonotactics: implications for the ESL/EFL classroom in speech production and perception.

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A A TADROS (Sudan), Predictive categories in university textbooks.
H COLEMAN (UK), Analysing language needs in large organizations.
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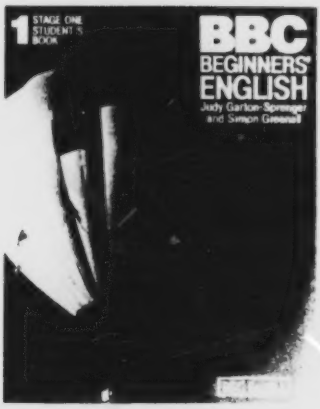

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